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A GRAMMAR OF SPOKEN ENGLISH

A GRAMMAR OF
SPOKEN ENGLISH

BY

HAROLD E. PALMER

AND

F. G. BLANDFORD

THIRD EDITION

REVISED AND REWRITTEN

BY

ROGER KINGDON

Preface to Third Edition

PALMER'S *Grammar of Spoken English* was first published in 1924, and was dedicated to the author's friend, Thomas Beach, with acknowledgement of the advice and encouragement he had given.

After several reprints had appeared the author, with the help of F. G. Blandford, who had already collaborated with Palmer in other works intended to facilitate the study of English as a second language, produced a slightly revised edition, which appeared in 1939. In the preface to this second edition the revisers thanked those who had sent comments on the book, mentioning in particular Lilias Armstrong, G. Noël-Armfield, Dr. Sanki Ichikawa and Dr. James Welton. Special mention was made of the sympathy and stimulus derived from "D. J.", and the revisers, declaring that the book owed its inception to Professor Daniel Jones, recorded their gratitude for his inspiration and encouragement.

It is generally acknowledged that Palmer's *Grammar of Spoken English* is a very important pioneer work which has had a decisive influence not only on the presentation of English grammar to foreign students but also on the course of further research work in this field. Many of the ideas put forward by Palmer have met with widespread acceptance and at the same time further advances have been made. This has had the inevitable effect of making Palmer's grammar begin to "date," and I felt, therefore, that a fairly full revision of the work would be justified—firstly in order to carry the author's ideas to their logical conclusion and secondly, by incorporating some of the latest advances and adding a few ideas of my own, to preserve the pioneer spirit of the original work. In consequence, most of the book has been rewritten on the lines described below.

The detailed Table of Contents has been replaced by a skeleton table supplemented by an alphabetical index at the end of the book. The system of numbered paragraphs has been retained, but the paragraphs have been increased in length and the number of examples given has in many cases been increased. All examples are now transcribed in bold type, which avoids the need for frequent use of square brackets.

The phonetic transcription used in previous editions (often known as the E.P.D. system) has been replaced by the Simplified System

used by an increasing number of phoneticians in books intended for the teaching of English to foreign students. This system, which was recommended to me personally by the late Professor Daniel Jones, uses fewer unfamiliar symbols and thus makes it easier for the uninitiated to read the examples. Alternative pronunciations have not been given; where these exist the one shown is that which I consider most likely to be used by educated people in fluent speech.

Intonation is shown by means of a system which was favourably commented upon by Harold Palmer, though he did not live long enough to experiment with it. This is the Tonetic Stress-mark System which I developed for use in my own works on English stress and intonation. This system, which requires a minimum expenditure of time and space, makes it possible to give an easily readable outline of recommended intonations for all the examples throughout the book. It must, of course, be understood that in many cases alternative treatments are possible, but in every case the intonation shown is one that might well be used by most native English speakers.

The general arrangement of the book has been adhered to, except that *Part IV*, *Logical Categories*, has been eliminated, as it was felt that it might be better to use the space for a more detailed analysis of verbal structures.

Part I. This has been renamed *Pronunciation* in order to place Tonetics on an equal footing with Phonetics. While the original arrangement has been preserved the whole section has been re-written and the treatment of intonation has been based on my own analysis of the English tunes.

Part II. Palmer's classification of the Parts of Speech has been followed and treated as definitive, though the now widely used term Determiners has been substituted for his Determinatives. Most of the chapters dealing with the parts of speech have been rewritten, particularly the chapter on the Verb, and in this a number of new ideas of my own have been introduced. These entail a radical change in the presentation of verb structure, which may be regarded as too revolutionary, but experience has convinced me that this presentation enables foreign students to understand the English verb system much more easily than has been possible hitherto. The innovations for which I must take full responsibility are: the placing

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of the negative finites on a par with the affirmative ones; the rejection of Palmer's concept of "compound finites" in favour of a three-tier division into conjugating finites, conjugating verbals and specific verbals; the amalgamation of future and conditional tenses into modal tenses, and a new system of tense nomenclature.

Part III. The original title *Parts of the Sentence* has been changed to *Sentence Structure* since increased space has been given to an analysis of the various structures used in the four forms of the sentence. Using a new set of symbols to identify the various elements that can enter into the formation of a simple sentence, the analysis gives in tabular form examples of practically every possible structure for all the tenses of the verb. The fact that English is able to express unusually fine shades of temporal and modal meaning has led to a belief in some quarters that the tense system is complicated and unsystematic. It is hoped that this new presentation of the verb will help students to understand the system and will convince them that its reputation is undeserved.

I desire to thank Harold Palmer's daughter, Mrs. Dorothée Anderson, for giving me a free hand in revising her father's work, and the publishers for making this revision possible. My best thanks are also due to Professor Frank Palmer and Professor Randolph Quirk for valuable suggestions, and to my wife, Martha Velarde de Kingdon, for the idea developed in §§373–377 and for help in compiling the index.

R. K.

London, October 1968

PUBLISHERS' NOTE

Mr. Roger Kingdon was an assistant in the Department of Phonetics in University College, London, under Professor Daniel Jones. Later he was Director of Studies in the British Institutes in Cairo, Mexico City and Bogotá. He has lectured on English Intonation in the University of Groningen and in various Latin American universities. He is the author of three works on English Stress and Intonation, and has published a number of articles on various aspects of English grammar.

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Introduction

THE GRAMMAR AND THE DICTIONARY

LANGUAGES are made up of an enormous number of units loosely designated as *words*, each of which has one or more *meanings*. In order to find these we consult a *dictionary*. Thus the dictionary tells us that the word *horse* is associated with a certain animal, or that the word *take* corresponds to certain activities (such as *seizing*, *conveying*, *conducting*, etc.), either by describing them or by giving the equivalents of the word in some other language. In similar ways it gives us the meanings of such words as *good*, *five*, *quickly*, or *yesterday*. All words having a character comparable to those quoted above are considered by Sweet[1] as being *independent sense-units*, and he terms them Full Words (now generally known as Content Words). But in addition to such full words we find words which have little or no independent meaning, but merely express relations between the different parts of a sentence; instead of having distinct *semantic* functions they have *syntactic* or *grammatical* functions. Such words (e.g. *of*, *to*, *the*, *is*) are termed by Sweet Form-words (now generally known as Structural Words). This distinction is in many ways a convenient one, but it is not always easy to draw a line between the two classes.

The inexperienced student might imagine that it is possible to learn a foreign language on a lexical basis alone, and the authors of some artificial languages seem to have had in view a system for which the dictionary would afford a complete key. But in natural languages we find that certain conceptions of number, time, relation, etc., are not represented by specific *words*, but by devices such as word-order, inflexion, intonation, or the use of affixes; such devices I have termed *alogisms*.[2]

What may be expressed in one language by means of a structural word may be expressed alogistically in another, thus the French *boîte à allumettes* is equivalent to the English *matchbox*, the relational

[1] *New English Grammar*, §§52, 58.
[2] *The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages*, pp. 12, 39, 41, 45, and Appendix II.

idea represented by the structural word *à* being expressed by the English word-order. Conversely, the English *he will come* is equivalent to the French *il viendra*, the English structural word *will* being expressed by the inflected form of the French verb *venir*. The tendency of English during the whole of its history is to substitute structural words for inflexions.

It would almost seem that the scope of the dictionary should be confined to content words, and that structural words and their alogistic equivalents should be relegated to the grammar-book. This, however, is neither possible nor even desirable, for, apart from the difficulty of drawing a line between the two, a given word may sometimes be one and at other times be the other. Moreover, in many cases a word expresses both a semantic conception and one or more grammatical conceptions. The word *horses* not only evokes in our minds the idea of a certain animal, but it also evokes the conception of plurality. Even the word *horse* conveys, in addition to its primary meaning, the idea of "singularity." The word *took* corresponds to the ideas of seizing, conveying or conducting, etc., but also evokes the idea of "pastness." The word *better* suggests not only goodness, but also *relative* goodness. The word *me* suggests the *ego* and also the objective relation. The word *my* evokes the *ego* and possession.

The dictionary therefore explains content words and structural words alike, while the grammar-book describes and explains all phenomena which can be brought under general rules.[1] It classifies words and states the peculiarities of each category. To do this effectively and economically, it creates as many categories as are deemed necessary or expedient, and designates each by a term which will enable us to recognize it.

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[1] We have seen that the phenomena of language are of two kinds: those which can be brought under general rules and those which cannot. The only phenomena that can be brought under general rules are those that have something in common, by which they are associated together in the mind by the psychological process of *group-association* by which *association-groups* are formed. There are in every language an endless number of these groups, and one and the same word may belong to several such groups at once. Thus the words *trees*, *towns*, *boys*, form an association-group through having the same "inflection" *-s*, and having the meanings "more-than-oneness" in common. Sweet, *New English Grammar*, §20.

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We do not say *this books*, in educated English speech we do not say *I are*, and no Frenchman ever says *le table*. But in quite another order of incompatibility we do not speak of *warm ice*, for, as far as we know, such a substance does not exist; we do not speak of a *triangle with four corners*, for such a figure is inconceivable; these would be nonsense expressions. But *this books are all mine*, *I are busy*, or *voici le table* are not nonsense expressions; they make sense but they offend against *grammatical* usage.

The dictionary only gives us such information as will enable us to avoid nonsense expressions, it is silent concerning the grammatical incompatibilities; for information and guidance concerning these, we must have recourse to *grammar*.

THE UTILITY OF A GRAMMAR

Most educationists probably agree that the sort of English grammar which is intended to serve as a series of "directions for use" for the benefit of the foreign adult student of English must differ very widely (if not fundamentally) from the sort of English grammar taught in English schools to English school children.

This *Grammar of Spoken English* is intended to be used chiefly (but not exclusively) by foreign adult students of English, and by all teachers of spoken English. The fact that it is written *in English* shows that it is not intended to be put into the hands of beginners; it is designed to help (*a*) those who are already able to understand written English, and (*b*) the English teachers who teach living English speech.

Such a grammar helps foreign students by economizing time. It is impossible to learn a language by memorizing it word by word and sentence by sentence, for the number of possible sentences in a language is practically limitless. If, when we form original sentences of our own, we build them up synthetically by piecing together the units of which they are composed, what usually results is a foreign caricature of some sentence of our own language. It is clear to-day that we must form original sentences *from analogous sentences which have been* (consciously or unconsciously) *memorized at some previous time*.

The process is that now known as *substitution*; the following example shows how it works: Consciously or unconsciously a foreign

student has memorized the sentence *If I'd seen him yesterday I should have spoken to him.* He has also memorized such isolated words or word-groups as *written, met, her, last week,* and has become aware that English grammatical usage allows him to replace *I'd* by *he'd, she'd* or *they'd, seen* by *met, him* by *her* or *them, yesterday* by *last week* or *a few days ago, I should* by *he would, they could* or *we might, spoken* by *written, to him* by *to her* or *to them.* In consequence therefore of having memorized the sentence and the isolated words and word-groups, *and having become aware of certain grammatical categories,* he is able to recognize at first hearing and to produce instantaneously and automatically any of the following 1,728 sentences, all of which (with one exception) are original or non-memorized.[1]

If I'd	seen	him	yesterday,	I should	have	spoken	to him.
If' he'd	met	her	last week,	he would		written	to her.
If she'd		them	a few days ago,	they could			to them.
If they'd				we might			

By applying this process of substitution we can form an unlimited number of correct sentences. But to do this the student must know the various grammatical categories, otherwise he may proceed according to false analogies. Having memorized *ought you to go?* he may form by false analogy: *want you to go?* Having memorized *I hope to go,* he may derive from this: *I think to go.* If he is not aware of the limited extent of the category *written, driven, ridden,* etc., he may introduce into it such an invented form as *arriven.*

The chief function of a grammar-book is to furnish the student with categories which will enable him to perform the greatest number of useful substitutions. In many cases the grammar merely sets forth either the whole or the most frequently-used members of each category. In other cases it is possible to frame a "grammatical rule," by which the student can draw up his own category. It is, however, safer to furnish the student with the actual members of the category, for he may feel that it is enough for him to have to learn the contents of a given category without having, in addition, to work it out for himself from abstract rules and formulae.

[1] See my *100 Substitution Tables* (Heffer), *Principles of Language Study*, pp. 175–177 (Harrap), *Systematic Exercises in Sentence-Building, Classroom Procedures and Devices, Mechanism Grammar, Automatic Sentence-Builder* (the last four published by the Institute for Research in English Teaching, Tokyo).

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In this book the foreign student will find a selection of what the author considers to be the most useful grammatical categories of spoken English. In many cases the actual word-lists are provided, those being drawn in most cases from lists of the 2,000 most useful words. In other cases, the word-lists themselves are replaced by grammatical rules and explanations. The copious examples given to illustrate every rule afford full opportunities for the process of substitution. A serious endeavour has been made to treat each subject according to its importance. The aim throughout has been to show students how to form original sentences rather than to give detailed instructions concerning word-building. Information which can be found in a good dictionary has been omitted, except in a few instances in which the author has judged it expedient to encroach on the scope of the dictionary.

"SPOKEN" AND "WRITTEN" ENGLISH

The terms "spoken" and "written" are open to more than one interpretation. In the present case, the term *Spoken English* should be taken to mean "that variety of English which is generally used by educated people (more especially in the South of England) in the course of ordinary conversation or when writing letters to intimate friends." The term *Written English* may be taken to cover those varieties of English that we generally find in printed books, reviews, newspapers, formal correspondence, and that we sometimes hear in the language of public speakers and orators, or possibly in formal conversation (more especially between strangers).

The terms "spoken" and "colloquial" are frequently used synonymously; when this is the case, the term "colloquial" is assumed to have the connotation used above, and not that connotation which would make it synonymous with "vulgar" or "slangy." Similarly, the term "written" is frequently used as a synonym of "classical" or "literary."

All words and examples are given in phonetic transcription, the only possible procedure to follow when dealing with the spoken form of a living language whose orthographic and phonetic systems are mutually are variance.[1] Moreover, throughout the book the

[1] Not only do the aims of grammar teaching need restating, but its methods need radical reform. Nearly all text-books on grammar are written as if English were a dead language. Their rules, examples and exceptions are

examples have been shown with recommended stressing and intonation, since these form an integral part of the grammar of Spoken English.

THE GRAMMAR OF USAGE

One of the most widely diffused of the many linguistic illusions current in the world is the belief that each language possesses a "pure" or "grammatical" form, a form which is intrinsically "correct," which is independent of usage, which exists, which has always existed, but which is now in danger of losing its existence. For, according to this theory, there exist in all lands enemies of the language; those who, from perversity or from neglect, are attempting to defile the well of pure language. Among those enemies are assumed to be the careless slipshod writers who do not trouble to study their grammars, the uneducated who are too lazy to learn their own language, and the slovenly speakers who mumble their syllables instead of articulating them. According to this theory, there also exist Defenders of the Faith (generally assumed to be the "best" authors and the "best" speakers), and there is waged a long and bitter struggle between the followers of Ormuzd and Ahriman. Those who declare themselves as being "on the side of the angels" may indeed confess to certain shortcomings in respect to the "purity" or "correctness" of their personal speech, but endeavour to make up for those regrettable lapses by the zeal with which they pillory the lapses of their fellow-sinners.

"It has now become practically impossible for any writer so to express himself that he shall not run foul of the convictions of some person who has fixed the employment of a particular word or construction as his test of correctness of usage. Should any person

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expressed in the form of our conventional spellings rather than of the spoken words or syllables which those spellings represent, often very inadequately. Few school grammarians appear to realize that a living language is composed of sounds, not of letters; for example, to state the rule for the plural inflexion of English nouns in terms of spelling without the use of phonetic symbols is quite misleading. . . . The teaching must be closely allied with phonetics, since the first fact to be learnt about language is that it is composed of sounds, and since there are some grammatical notions which it is impossible to convey without the use of phonetic symbols.—*Report of the Government Committee on the Teaching of English in England*, §§258, 264.

seriously set out to observe every one of the various and varying utterances put forth for his guidance by all the members of this volunteer army of guardians of the Speech, he would in process of time find himself without any language to use whatever."[1]

One of the best proofs of the prevalence of this theory is the persistence of that age-long series of enquiries "Where is English best spoken?" "In what part of France do they speak the most correct French?" "Where is purest German to be found?" etc. etc. The mere use in this connection of such terms as "best" or "correct" implies that there is in the mind of the enquirer an implicit belief in the existence of some standard or super-dialect the superiority or intrinsic "correctness" of which cannot be questioned. The only possible answers to such questions are: "The best Scottish-English is spoken in Scotland"; "The best American-English is spoken in the United States"; "The purest London-English is to be found in London"; "The most correct Parisian-French is used in Paris"; "The ideal Viennese-German is spoken in Vienna"; "The only pure form of Slocum-in-the-Hole-English is used at the village of Slocum-in-the-Hole."

With this our questioners are not satisfied; they say, "Oh, but I am not speaking of local dialects and suchlike debased forms of language; Where is the standard language spoken? Where do they speak Real English?—Genuine French?—Pure German?" etc. The answer is: "There is no Real, Genuine or Pure English, French, etc., and there never has been." But the chimerical idea of a standard dialect still persists. In vain do the most eminent and most respected linguistic authorities deny its existence; in vain do the most erudite grammarians and etymologists assure us that the sole standard is and always has been that of correct usage. From the time of Horace[2] down to the time of Hales,[3] Sweet,[4] Lounsbury,[5]

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[1] Professor Thomas R. Lounsbury in an article entitled *The Standard of Usage.*

[2] ". . . si volet usus,

Quem penes arbitrium est et jus et norma loquendi."

—Horace in his treatise on the Poetic Art.

[. . . if it shall be the will of usage, in whose power is the decision and authority and the standard of speaking.]

[3] "The vulgar grammar-maker, dazzled by the glory of the ruling language,

Wyld,[1] Jespersen and Bloomfield, the standard of usage has remained supreme and unquestioned by those who have come to understand something of the nature of language. That usage is ruled by grammar is a thesis only defended to-day by the uninformed.[2]

The amateur grammarian or the "member of the volunteer army of guardians of the Speech," while pointing out in the abstract the proprieties or improprieties of speech, is generally perfectly unconscious of the forms of speech which he uses himself. He warns the unsuspecting foreigners against what he calls "vulgarisms," and says to him, "Don't ever use such vulgar forms as *don't* or *won't*; you won't hear educated people using them!" or "Never use a preposition to finish a sentence with!" or he may say, "I don't know who you learn English from, but you are always using the word *who* instead of *whom*."[3]   Or we may hear him say, "Oh, I've got something else to tell you: don't say *I've got* instead of *I have*."

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knew no better than to transfer to English the schemes which belonged to Latin."—J. W. Hales.

[4] "The first object in studying grammar is to learn to observe linguistic facts as they *are*, not as they *ought* to be, or as they were in an earlier stage of the language."—Sweet.

[5] ". . . were grammars and manuals of usage absolutely trustworthy.   But no such statement can be made of most of them, if, indeed, of any.   It is an unfortunate fact that since the middle of the eighteenth century, when works of this nature first began to be much in evidence and to exert distinct influence, far the larger proportion of them have been produced by men who had little acquaintance with the practice of the best writers and even less with the history and development of grammatical forms and constructions. Their lack of this knowledge led them frequently to put in its place assertions based not upon what usage really is, but upon what in their opinion it ought to be.   They evolved or adopted artificial rules for the government of expression. . . . As these rules were copied and repeated by others a fictitious standard of propriety was set up in numerous instances, and is largely responsible for many of the current misconceptions which now prevail as to what is grammatical."—Professor Lounsbury.

[1] "A grammar book does *not* attempt to teach people how they *ought* to speak, but, on the contrary, unless it is very bad or an old work, it merely states how, as a matter of fact, certain people *do* speak at the time at which it is written."—Professor Wyld.

[2] "There is no such thing as English Grammar in the sense that used to be attributed to the term."—The Board of Education's Circular on *The Teaching of English in Secondary Schools* (1910).

[3] See Coleman's *The Kind of English I use in Ordinary Conversation*, as quoted in my *English Intonation*, pp. 99-105.

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Now in the everyday speech of educated people those (and many other) so-called "vulgarisms" are constantly heard. Sweet calls them "theoretical vulgarisms," and observed their extreme frequency in the speech of those who so hotly denounce them. If such expressions are "ungrammatical" we must conclude that the vast majority of educated persons (not to mention the uneducated) have established *the usage of ungrammatical forms.* In which case the forms cease *ipso facto* to be ungrammatical.[1] The sort of English described and taught in the following pages is that used in everyday conversation by the vast majority of educated speakers of English. In pronunciation, in choice of words and expressions, and in grammatical usage, it represents faithfully the type of dialect which the author has carefully and conscientiously observed in the speech of the majority of those with whom he has generally come into contact. It is, moreover, the only spoken dialect which he feels competent to teach.

There are, of course, many different styles of pronunciation in English, but for the purpose of teaching the language to foreign students it is advisable to choose one that is most widely useful to them. The best dialect for this purpose is probably the one that has been called Received Pronunciation, and it is this that will be represented in this book. It is that given in Professor Daniel Jones's *English Pronouncing Dictionary,* viz. "that most usually heard in everyday speech in the families of Southern English persons whose men-folk have been educated at the great public boarding schools. . . . It is probably accurate to say that a majority of those members of London society who have had a university education, use either this pronunciation or a pronunciation not differing very greatly from it."

SCHEME OF CLASSIFICATION

In books devoted to teaching grammar of the conventional type it is usual to establish two main divisions, these being variously termed:

1. *Accidence, Etymology, Parsing, the Grammar of Words.*
2. *Syntax, Analysis, the Grammar of Sentences.*

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[1] "Whatever is in general use in a language is for that reason grammatically correct."—Sweet's *New English Grammar,* §12.

Without necessarily objecting to this twofold division, I find it more convenient and more in accordance with the nature of modern spoken English to adopt a different order of classification and to treat the various classes of grammatical phenomena under the following headings:

1. *Pronunciation*, including the study of sounds, stress and intonation.

2. *Parts of Speech*, their forms and functions.

3. *Parts of the Sentence*, or the syntax of the sentence.

For ease of reference, the whole of the material has been divided into paragraphs.

Pronunciation

A. Phonetics

ELEMENTS OF PRONUNCIATION

1 The English phonemes. In the same way that written lan-
guage is made up of letters, spoken language consists of speech-
sounds. Such sounds vary according to context and from one
speaker to another, even in the same dialect, but such variations
are held within limits that prevent their being confused with any
other speech sound used by the same speaker. The sounds used
in speaking a language are therefore divided into a number of
families, known as phonemes, each of which has a definite signifi-
cance. If the substitution of one sound for another can change the
meaning of any word in the language, those two sounds belong to
different phonemes of the language. Thus the existence of the
words rʌm, rʌn, rʌŋ in English proves that m, n and ŋ belong to
three different phonemes in that language, whereas the clear l and
dark l (see §7) belong to the same phoneme, since the substitution
of one for the other cannot change the meaning of any word.

2 Phonetic transcription. Again, for the purpose of teaching
English to foreign students, its sounds must be represented by a
system of phonetic transcription in which each phoneme is shown
consistently by an appropriate symbol. The system used in this
book is that of the International Phonetic Association in its most
simplified or "broadest" form; it is the form that uses the smallest
possible number of "strange" symbols consistent with representing
all the phonemes. In some works on the phonetics of English
"narrower" systems are used; these employ a greater number of
symbols and less familiar ones, and are more adapted to works
concentrating on dialectal and individual differences in pronunciation
and less suitable for a work like the present one.

3   English consonant sounds.

Symbol	Example		Short Description
			Plosives
p	piː	pea	Bilabial, voiceless
b	biː	bee	Bilabial, voiced
t	tuː	too	Alveolar, voiceless
d	duː	do	Alveolar, voiced
k	kiː	key	Velar, voiceless
g	gou	go	Velar, voiced
			Nasals
m	mai	my	Bilabial, voiced
n	nau	now	Alveolar, voiced
ŋ	siŋ	sing	Velar, voiced[1]
			Lateral
l	lou	low	Alveolar, voiced
			Fricatives
f	feə*	fair	Labio-dental, voiceless
v	vau	vow	Labio-dental, voiced
θ	θin	thin	Linguo-dental, voiceless
ð	ðen	then	Linguo-dental, voiced
s	soun	sown	Alveolar, voiceless
z	zoun	zone	Alveolar, voiced
ʃ	ʃou	show	Palato-alveolar, voiceless
ʒ	ˋpleʒə*	pleasure	Palato-alveolar, voiced[1]
h	hai	high	Laryngal, voiceless[2]
			Semi-vowels
w	wei	way	Bilabial and velar, voiced[3]
r	roː	raw	Post-alveolar, voiced[3]
j	juː	you	Palatal, voiced[3]
			Affricates
tʃ	tʃəːtʃ	church	Post-alveolar, voiceless
dʒ	dʒʌdʒ	judge	Post-alveolar, voiced

4 English vowel sounds.

No.	Symbol	Example		Short Description
				Pure Vowels
1	iː	siː	see	Front, close
2	i	sit	sit	Front, close to half close[4]
3	e	set	set	Front, half close to half open[3]
4	a	sat	sat	Front, half open to open[3]
5	aː	faː*	far	Back, open
6	o	got	got	Back, open, rounded[3]
7	oː	soː	saw	Back, half open, rounded
8	u	fut	foot	Back, half close to close, rounded[4]
9	uː	tuː	too	Back, close, rounded
10	ʌ	ʌp	up	Central, half open, unrounded[3]
11	əː	fəː*	fur	Central, half open to half close
12	ə	ə'gou	ago	Central, half open to half close[5]
				Falling Diphthongs
13	ei	mei	may	Narrow, front
14	ou	nou	no	Narrow, central to back
15	ai	mai	my	Wide, front
16	au	nau	now	Wide, back
17	oi	boi	boy	Wide, back to front
				Centring Diphthongs
18	iə	diə*	dear	Front, half close
19	eə	peə*	pair	Front, half open
20	oə	koə*	core	Back, half open
21	uə	tuə*	tour	Back, half close[1]

* Indicates that r is added when the word is followed immediately by one beginning with a vowel or diphthong.

[1] Never occurs in initial position in native English words.

[2] Never occurs in final position and is weakened or completely elided when it occurs at the beginning of an unstressed syllable.

[3] Never occurs in final position in native English words.

[4] Never occurs in stressed final position in native English words.

[5] Never occurs stressed in native English words.

The foregoing tables of English consonant and vowel sounds contain all the English phonemes and provide a reference enabling the reader to interpret the symbols which will be used consistently in all the examples given in this book.

The modifiers used with these symbols are described in the next two paragraphs, while the significance of the tonetic stress marks is given in §31.

5 Vowel length. The sign (ː) is used as a mark of vowel length. The vowels iː, aː, oː, uː and əː are intrinsically long, that is to say, they are longer than the other vowels when they occur in a similar phonetic context and are pronounced with the same degree of stress and the same intonation. The diphthongs have about the same length as the long vowels.

Shortening. Vowels are shortened when they are followed by voiceless consonants. Thus the vowel iː is shorter in the word biːt (=beat) than in the word biːd (=bead).

Lengthening. Vowels are lengthened when they occur at the end of a sentence, more particularly in open syllables. Thus the vowel uː is longer in ˋðei ˌduː than in ˋðei ˌduː it. They are still further lengthened if a kinetic tone falls on them, more especially if this happens to be a Tone III (see §31, 37). Thus duː in the group ai ˇduː is a great deal longer than in the group ai ˈduː ˇlaik it.

6 Miscellaneous signs. In addition to the 45 symbols (simple and compound) figuring in the above lists, the reader should note the following special signs:

(ˌ) placed under a consonant (generally m, n or l) indicates that the consonant has a syllabic value. Such words as prizm̩, bʌtn̩ or piːpl̩ contain two syllables. In the present work *all* syllabic consonants will be marked in this way.

(*) indicates that r is to be added when the sound immediately following is a vowel (or diphthong). Thus the word spelt *near* is transcribed and pronounced as niə*, but *as near as* would be transcribed and pronounced əz niər əz, and the comparative and superlative forms *nearer*, *nearest* are niərə*, niərist.

One or more words which may be omitted are enclosed within parentheses ( ), while a phonetic symbol printed in parentheses means that the sound for which it stands is often omitted or is inaudible in rapid speech.

SPECIAL POINTS IN PRONUNCIATION

7 The l phoneme. The English l phoneme has two principal members, and the choice between them depends on their phonetic context. Both are articulated by placing the tip of the tongue against the teeth-ridge and lowering one or both sides of the tongue to allow the breath stream to escape between the tongue and the back teeth, but they are distinguished by a secondary articulation.

One member, known as the "clear l," is made by raising the front of the tongue to the neighbourhood of the hard palate, which produces a resonance similar to that of the vowel i. This variety is used whenever a vowel or j follows the l.

The other member, known as the "dark l" is made by raising the back of the tongue to the neighbourhood of the soft palate, which produces a resonance similar to that of the vowel u. This variety is used whenever a vowel or j does not follow the l. Examples:

Clear l: lein, glʌv, fiːliŋ, koːl aut, wil ju.
Dark l: bul, waild, fiːl, koːld aut, ai tould ju.

Since the choice of variety of l follows the rule given above, it is unnecessary to distinguish the two kinds in a phonetic transcription.

Some English-speakers (chiefly in Ireland and Wales) use clear l in all positions, while others (chiefly in the United States) use dark l in all positions.

8 The r phoneme. There are several varieties of r used in English, but undoubtedly the commonest, and therefore the most acceptable for teaching to foreign students, is the *semi-vocalic* r. This sound, like w and j, occurs only before vowels or syllabic consonants and is made by moving the vocal organs from a close to a more open position—in this case the tongue tip, slightly retroflexed, from a position near, and slightly behind, the teeth-ridge to the more open position of the succeeding vowel. It is the variety used by the great majority of speakers of Received Pronunciation when the r sound occurs in a stressed syllable, and sometimes in other positions, particularly before syllabic consonants.

There are two other varieties of r which many of these speakers use in special phonetic contexts. They are:

The *tapped* r, made by tapping the tip of the tongue lightly against the teeth-ridge. This is used after the consonants θ and ð, as well as intervocalically when the r begins an unstressed syllable.

The *fricative* r, made with audible friction between the tip of the tongue and the teeth-ridge. This is used after the consonants t and d. A few speakers still use a slightly fricative r in all positions instead of the semi-vocalic one.

Other varieties of r occur as dialectal or individual peculiarities; these need not be dealt with here, and students should confine themselves to the three varieties described above, giving preference to the semi-vocalic r.

Examples:

Semi-vocalic: ə'raund, 'riːzṇ, greit, spred, ðə 'rest.
Semi-vocalic or Tapped: 'veri, 'hʌri, 'fjuəri, 'iri,teit.
Tapped: θril, θrout, 'sʌðrən (southron).
Fricative: truː, in'triːt, 'entri, drai, ə'dres, 'loːndri.

9 Nasal plosion. When one of the six plosive consonants is followed by a nasal consonant the air is expelled through the nose instead of the mouth, thus producing nasal plosion. In many such cases the nasal consonant is syllabic, especially in a final position.

Examples:

Non-syllabic Nasal		*Syllabic Nasal*	
–pm–	'ʃopmən	–pṃ	'oupṃ[1]
–bm–	'kabmən	–bṃ	'ribṃ[1]
–tn–	'laitniŋ	–tṇ	'ritṇ
–dn–	'gudnis	–dṇ	'wudṇ
–kn–	'rekniŋ	–kṅ	'rekṅ[1]
–gn–	'smʌgnis	–gṅ	'oːgṅ[1]

10 Lateral plosion. When one of the plosive consonants t,d is followed by the lateral consonant the air is expelled through an opening between the sides of the tongue and the back teeth instead of at some point on the centre line of the mouth. This type of articulation is known as lateral plosion, and the l is often syllabic, especially in a final position.

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[1] Many speakers avoid nasal plosions in these cases.

Examples:

Non-syllabic Lateral			Syllabic Lateral	
–tl–	ˋbʌtlə*		–tl̩	ˋbotl̩
–dl–	ˋmidliŋ		–dl̩	ˋmidl̩
–tl–	ətˋlantik		–tl̩–	ˋsetl̩mənt
–dl·–	ˋendlis		–dl̩–	ˋaidl̩nis

11 Incomplete plosion.   When a plosive is followed by another plosive, the two are so merged together that the explosion of the second serves for the two.   When two identical plosives come together they are pronounced as one plosive, with a closure of double length.   If the plosives are not identical the mere closure of the first is enough to indicate its difference from the second.

–p	p–	'raip ˋpeə*	–b	p–	'rob ˋpiːtə*
–p	b–	ˋsoup ˌbʌbl̩	–b	b–	'rʌb ˋbriskli
–p	t–	ˋkʌp ˌtai	–b	t–	'skrʌb ˋtwais
–p	d–	'diːp ˋdaun	–b	d–	ˋkab ˌdraivə*
–p	k–	ˋpaip ˌkliːnə*	–b	k–	ˋbob ˌkeim
–p	g–	'diːp ˋgoːdʒ	–b	g–	'grab ˋgould
–t	p–	'wet ˋpeint	–d	p–	'ruːd ˋpiːpl̩
–t	b–	ˋpokit ˌbuk	–d	b–	ˋkaːdboːd
–t	t–	'ðat ˋtrein	–d	t–	'gud ˋtaim
–t	d–	'greit ˋdiːl	–d	d–	'bad ˋdei
–t	k–	'not ˋkiːn	–d	k–	'red ˋkʌvə*
–t	g–	'wait ˋguːs	–d	g–	'bad ˋges
–k	p–	'silk ˋpəːs	–g	p–	ˋflagpoul
–k	b–	ˋiŋk botl̩	–g	b–	ˋdog ˌbiskit
–k	t–	'blak ˋtai	–g	t–	ˋragtaim
–k	d–	'pʌblik ˋdjuːti	–g	d–	'dig ˋdaun
–k	k–	'blak ˋkat	–g	k–	ˋegkʌp
–k	g–	'paːk ˋgeit	–g	g–	'big ˋgəːl

When a plosive is followed by a fricative or a semi-vowel various sorts of glides occur, the nature of which hardly comes within the scope of this grammar.

12 Elision.   The delivery of speech is often speeded up by the omission of various sounds which would otherwise interrupt easy

and familiar sound-junctions. This tendency is known as elision, and the following are characteristic examples:

Elision of Vowels

əˈlaud tends to become ˈlaud in *we're not allowed to.*
eni „ „ „ ṇi „ *I haven't got any more.*
ənˈtil „ „ „ ṇˈtil „ *wait until I'm ready.*
ˈraːðər „ „ „ ˈraːðr „ *rather a good thing.*

Elision of Consonants

məst tends to become məs in *I must go.*
dʒʌst „ „ „ dʒʌs „ *just come here.*
laːst „ „ „ laːs „ *last month.*
ənd „ „ „ ən „ *here and there.*
səm „ „ „ sə „ *some more.*
frentʃ „ „ „ frenʃ.
saundz „ „ „ saunz.

13 Assimilation. Another device used in order to make speech easier and more rapid is that of avoiding awkward and difficult sound-junctions by modifying one of two adjacent sounds. This process is called assimilation. It will be noticed that in some of the following examples elision occurs as well as assimilation:

Devoicing of Voiced Consonants

widθ tends to become witθ.
ʃəd əv „ „ „ ʃt f in *I should have thought so.*
kəd „ „ „ kt „ *I could take it.*
faiv „ „ „ faif „ *fivepence.*
əv „ „ „ əf „ *of course.*
z „ „ „ s „ *as far.*

Various Consonant Modifications

tj tends to become tʃ in *last year, question, natural, etc.*
dj „ „ „ dʒ „ *would you, soldier, during, etc.*
sʃ „ „ „ ʃʃ „ *horseshoe, of course she does, etc.*
zʃ „ „ „ ʒʃ „ *has she, does she, etc.*
nk „ „ „ ŋk „ *enquire, in company, etc.*
ng „ „ „ ŋg „ *engage, in good condition, etc.*
pṇ „ „ „ pm̩ „ *open, soap and water, etc.*

Note.—When assimilation takes place in the body of a single word, the actual pronunciation is transcribed, thus *question* is shown as kwestʃn̩ and not as kwestjn̩. But when the final sound of a word is assimilable to the initial sound of a following word, it would be a cumbrous proceeding to include the possible variants in the word-lists and explanatory matter of a grammar-book, and indeed it is often considered inexpedient to give the modified form even in connected texts.

In such cases it must be left to the student to deduce the exact pronunciation by means of the rules and conventions furnished in text-books of English phonetics.

WEAKENING

14 Weak forms. Certain frequently-used words are given a weakened pronunciation when they are unstressed. In a few cases the use of weak forms is optional, but about fifty words have what may be called essential weak forms, which are used automatically when the words are unstressed. In such cases the use of strong forms gives an artificial and foreign flavour to the speech and destroys the natural rhythm of the language; it is therefore important for foreign students of English to pay special attention to this point in their pronunciation.

Grammatically, the words having essential and optional weak forms belong to the following parts of speech. (An explanation of the terms used will be found in §47.)

	Essential	*Optional*
Determiners	16	2
Conjugating verbs ..	18	2
Prepositions	6	1
Connectives	7	2
Miscellaneous	4	1

While the great majority of these words have only one strong form (which must be used on the comparatively rare occasions when the word is stressed), most of them have several weak forms, the choice between these depending on the phonetic context in

which the word occurs, and the speed of delivery. In the following tables the weak forms are classified under these headings:

Normal: used when none of the other circumstances obtain;

Initial: used when the word begins a sentence or sense-group;

Pre-vocalic: used when the word is followed by another beginning with a vowel;

Post-vocalic: used when the word is preceded by another ending in a vowel;

Final: used when the word ends a sentence or sense-group;

Rapid: used in rapid speech when extra weakening is needed.

In a few cases there are variant forms used (*a*) as a result of assimilation, (*b*) in the neighbourhood of sibilant consonants (s, z, ∫, ʒ, t∫, dʒ) or (*c*) in special contexts. These are indicated in notes at the foot of each table.

This classification is given, not as a hard and fast rule, but as a guide to the circumstances in which each form is most likely to be used. Numerous examples of the use of the different weak forms will be found in the specimen sentences given in the chapters describing the respective parts of speech.

A more generalized manifestation of weakening consists of the use in unstressed syllables of a shorter and more centralized (and therefore more obscure) vowel where a longer and more distinctive vowel or diphthong would be used if the syllable were a stressed one. In English there are three weak vowels that occur in such positions:

i, which may replace iː, ei *or* ai

u, which may replace uː or ou

ə which may replace almost any other vowel.

It should be noted that unstressed i and u are rather more centralized in quality than the stressed i and u, while if they are representing the diphthongs ei and ou respectively many speakers, particularly in the English countryside and in the United States, use an abbreviated diphthong; others prefer a centralized pure vowel, so that one may hear pronunciations varying from sʌndei to sʌndi and from windou to windu. Since foreign students of English tend to use vowels that are too strong for unstressed syllables, the latter transcriptions will be preferred in the present work.

15 Determiners. The determiners having weak forms are of several kinds.

Strong Forms		Ortho-graphic Form	Weak Forms			
Normal	Pre-vocalic		Normal	Initial	Pre-vocalic	Rapid
Personal Pronouns						
ˈhiː		he	i	hi		
ˈʃiː		she	ʃi			
ˈwiː		we	wi			
ˈjuː		you	ju			
ˈmiː		me	mi			
ˈhim		him[1]	im	—		
ˈhəː	ˈhəːr	her[1]	ə	—	ər	
ˈʌs		us	əs[2]			
ˈðem		them[1]	ðəm[3]			ðm̩
Possessives						
ˈmai		my[1]	mi			
ˈhiz		his	iz	hiz		
ˈhəː	ˈhəːr	her	əː	hə[4]	ər[4]	
ˈjoə	ˈjoər	your[1]	jə		jər	
Articles						
ˈei	ˈan	a, an	ə		ən	
ˈðiː		the	ðə		ði	
Partitive						
ˈsʌm		some	səm			sm̩

Optional weak forms:

    any, strong form ˈeni, has the weak forms n̩i and ni.

    such, strong form ˈsʌtʃ, has the weak form sətʃ.

The word body, strong form ˈbodi, is often weakened to bədi in the semi-pronouns ˈsʌmbədi, ˈenibədi, ˈnoubədi.

[1] The weak forms are used in forming the expanded pronouns.
[2] A special weak form s is used in the collocation let s.
[3] A weak form əm, from the O.E. pronoun hem, is widely used.
[4] A weak form hər is used in initial pre-vocalic position.

16 Conjugators. When they are used unstressed in conjunction with a specific verbal (§124–5) the affirmative forms of most conjugating finites (§146) have a weakened pronunciation. In other cases a strong form is used, even in unstressed positions.

| Strong Forms | | Ortho-graphic Form | Weak Forms | | | | |
Normal	Pre-vocalic		Normal	Initial	Pre-vocalic	Post-vocalic	Final
Temporals							
ˈam		am	m	əm			am
ˈiz		is	z¹	iz			iz
ˈaː	ˈaːr	are	ə		ər		aː
ˈwoz		was	wəz				woz
ˈwəː	ˈwəːr	were	wə		wər		wəː
ˈhav		have	əv	həv		v	hav
ˈhaz		has	z²	həz			haz
ˈhad		had	əd	həd		d	had
ˈduː		do	də³		du		du(ː)
ˈdʌz		does	dəz				dʌz
Modals							
ˈwil		will	l	wil		l	wil
ˈʃal		shall	ʃəl		ʃl	ʃl	ʃal
ˈkan		can	kən				kan
ˈmʌs	ˈmʌst	must	məs		məst		mʌst
ˈwud		would	ud, əd	wəd		d	wud
ˈʃud		should	ʃəd				ʃud
ˈkud		could	kəd				kud
Verbal							
ˈhav		have	əv				əv

Optional weak forms occur in the case of two verbals:
    be, strong form ˈbiː, weak form bi.
    been, strong form ˈbiːn, weak form bin.

[1] The sibilants s, z, ʃ, ʒ, take the form iz after them, and the voiceless consonants p, t, k, f, θ are followed by the assimilated form s.

[2] The sibilants s, z, ʃ, ʒ take the form əz after them, and the voiceless consonants p, t, k, f, θ are followed by the assimilated form s.

[3] A special weak form, d, is used before unstressed juː.

17 Prepositions. The weak forms of these are not used when they occur finally in their clause in the circumstances described in §294.

Strong Forms		Ortho-graphic Form	Weak Forms			
Normal	Pre-vocalic		Normal	Pre-vocalic	Final	Rapid
ˋat		at	ət		at	
ˋbʌt		but	bət		ˋbʌt[1]	
ˋfoː	ˋfoːr	for	fə	fər	foː	fr
ˋfrom		from	frəm		from	frm̩
ˋov		of	əv		ov	v, ə
ˋtuː		to	tə	tu	tu	

Optional weak forms:

by, strong form ˋbai, weak form bi (in certain contexts only).

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[1] In the expressions 'oːl ˋbʌt and 'eniθiŋ ˋbʌt.

18   Connectives.

Strong Forms		Ortho-graphic Form	Weak Forms			
Normal	Pre-vocalic		Normal	Pre-vocalic	Post-vocalic	Rapid
Conjunctions						
ˈan	ˈand	and	ən	ənd		ŋ, ņd
ˈbʌt		but	bət			
ˈaz		as	əz			
—		than[1]	ðən			ðņ
—		that[1]	ðət			
Relatives						
ˈhuː		who	u		hu	
—		that[1]	ðət			

Optional weak forms:

    or, strong forms oː, oːr, weak forms ə, ər.
    nor, strong forms noː, noːr, weak forms nə, nər.

[1] The strong forms of these words are normally used only in naming them; the demonstrative "that" has no weak form.

14

19 Miscellaneous.

Strong Forms		Ortho-graphic Form	Weak Forms			
Normal	Pre-vocalic		Normal	Pre-vocalic	Post-vocalic	Rapid
ˋðeə	ˋðeər	there[1]	ðə	ðər		
ˋnot		not[2]	ṇ	ṇt	n, nt	
ˋseint		saint[3]	sṇ	sṇt		sm̩, sŋ̍
ˋsəː	ˋsəːr	sir	sə	sər		

Optional weak forms:

so, strong form ˋsou, weak forms su, sə.

[1] This word is not the adverb of place, but the precursory "there" used with the verb "to be."

[2] The weakened form of "not" occurs only as an element in the formation of the negative conjugating finites (§146).

[3] The assimilated form sm̩ is used before names beginning with p, b or m, and sŋ̍ occurs before names beginning with k or g.

B. Tonetics

FACTORS IN INTONATION

20 Scope. The term tonetics may be said to cover all those elements of speech (sometimes referred to as supra-segmental features) that help to express a speaker's meaning or feeling, or his attitude towards what he is talking about. It covers such factors as stress, loudness, rhythm, pitch, intonation, speed of delivery and voice quality, all of which affect the relative prominence of words and syllables. The factors that most concern us here are stress, pitch and intonation.

21 Stress. Stress is the force used in speaking. It is rare for stress to remain constant over successive syllables. Strong stress usually gives the impression of greater loudness, though in dramatic passages it is sometimes used without increasing the loudness of delivery. There are infinite gradations of stress, but for practical purposes it is sufficient to distinguish three degrees, and syllables may be classified as fully stressed, partially stressed and unstressed. The object of stressing certain syllables in speaking is to make them stand out from the others, thus giving greater prominence to the words of which they form part.

22 Pitch. The relative height or depth of the voice is referred to as pitch. Some stressed syllables are pronounced on a level pitch and may be said to have Level or *Static Stress*. Others are associated with a more or less marked glide upwards or downwards—or both —and this glide may be complete on the stressed syllable itself or may be spread over a following series of unstressed syllables. Since the precise incidence of the glide is not significant and is determined by the distribution of stressed and unstressed syllables it is convenient to regard the syllable in either case as having Moving or *Kinetic Stress*.

23 Prominence. Pitch and pitch change have considerable effect on the prominence of a syllable. Given equal degrees of stress, syllables pronounced on a high pitch give a hearer the impression of greater prominence than do those pronounced on low

pitches, and those bearing a kinetic stress have greater prominence than those bearing a static stress.   Further, among the kinetic stresses the downward glide gives more prominence than the upward glide.

24 Word stress.   This is a convenient term for designating the stressing of the various syllables of a word when it is pronounced in isolation.   Word stress is the foundation on which sentence stress and intonation are laid.   The final full stress in any complete utterance is always a kinetic one; if, therefore, a word is pronounced in isolation it is automatically given a kinetic stress on one of its syllables.   Thus when words such as ˋiːzi, ˋkʌvəriŋ or ˋevidəntli are pronounced in isolation (or as the last stressed word in a group) the first syllable will in each case take a kinetic stress, but when words such as məˋʃiːn, diˋtəːmind or disˋkʌvəri are used in similar circumstances it is the second syllable that takes the kinetic stress.

25 Multiple word stress.   Many English words take two stresses, and a few very long ones take three or more.   In these cases the last stress is the kinetic one and those that precede it are static ones.   There are two main causes of multiple stressing:

1. In many polysyllabic words the kinetic stress falls on a syllable later than the second; in such cases a static stress is used on one of the first two syllables:

   ˈʌndiˋtəːd, ˈkonvəˋseiʃn, igˈzamiˋneiʃn.

2. In many words composed of two elements each element retains a stress:

   ˈaːftəˋnuːn, ˈgudˋwil, ˈʌndəˋgradjuit, ˈilˋtriːt,
   ˈsʌbˋkontinənt, ˈouvəˋdʌn.

Examples of words having three or more stresses:

   ˈsjuːpəˈfiʃiˋaliti, ˈinəkˈsesiˋbiliti, ˈmisprəˈnʌnsiˋeiʃn,
   ˈekstrəˈteriˈtoːriˋaliti.

26 Rhythm.   English speakers show a preference for separating stressed syllables by one or more unstressed ones, and for placing stresses at more or less equal time intervals.   Words that have multiple stress in isolation are particularly influenced by this habit, and many of them may lose one or other of their stresses in connected speech, the rule being that if they are closely linked in meaning

with a neighbouring stressed word, the stress falling nearest to that word will be very much weakened or will disappear altogether. Taking the double-stressed word ˈaːftəˌnuːn, we find:

    ˈaːftənuːn ˋtiː *but* ə ˈfain aːftəˋnuːn.

27 Sentence stress. The stress modifications noted in the previous section are one aspect of what is known as sentence stress, i.e., the stressing of words in the sentence. In connected speech even single-stressed words may lose their stress if their function in the sentence is an unimportant one, or if they are being repeated, having just been used by the same or another speaker in a conversation, or if they are being modified in some important respect by the addition of another word.

28 Intonation. The term intonation refers specifically to those pitch changes that are significant. In "expressionless" speech the voice does not continue on a dead level, but follows a very slowly descending scale. Since this gradual descent is consistent its presence can be assumed, and in marking intonation only the significant rises and falls need be indicated. In a complete utterance these may be quite complicated, but they can be reduced to a manageable number if those pitch changes that can occur on a single syllable are regarded as the basic tones. When looked at from the point of view of intonation, the static and kinetic stresses will be called static and kinetic *tones*.

29 Static tones. These add prominence or emphasis to the word on which they are used, but do not normally add meaning or feeling. They may occupy any pitch within a speaker's voice range, but for practical purposes it is sufficient to distinguish two levels, high and low. Emphasis tends to raise high tones and to lower low tones.

30 Kinetic tones. These add meaning or feeling to the word on which they are used, and this meaning or feeling extends in suitable cases to the whole sense-group in which they occur. As there are five different kinds of pitch change that may be concentrated on a single syllable, five kinetic tones must be distinguished, but it must be remembered that in many cases the tone is extended over a series of unstressed syllables following the stressed one.

31   Tonetic stress marks. Thanks to the connection between pitch variation and stress it is possible to indicate both phenomena by a single set of symbols, known as tonetic stress marks.   With the exception of the high pitch mark, all the marks are placed before a stressed syllable, and the five kinetic tone marks—those preceded by roman numerals in the following list—indicate the stressed syllable on which a significant pitch change occurs or is initiated.

High (') or Low (ˌ) Level or Static Tone.
I   High (´) or Low (ˏ) Rising Tone.
II   High (`) or Low (ˎ) Falling Tone.
III High (ˇ) or Low (ᵥ) Falling-Rising Tone.
IV   High (^) or Low (˄) Rising-Falling Tone.
V   High (˄ˇ) or Low (ˌᵥ) Rising-Falling-Rising Tone.
        (˙) A weak stress of any pitch (except the lowest)
                which does not interfere with the flow of the
                intonation.
        (⁻) An unstressed syllable of high pitch.

Specially emphatic tones are shown by doubling the first stroke of the tonetic stress mark, e.g., (ˮ, ˮ, ˇ).

ANALYSIS OF A TUNE

32   Nature of tunes. A sense-group containing a nuclear tone is called a tone-group, or more conveniently a *tune*.   It may or may not be grammatically linked with other sense-groups having their own tunes, but with few exceptions any tune must contain a kinetic tone to form its nucleus, thereby acquiring its special character.   In most tunes there will be other words besides the nuclear one that require stresses, and these other stresses may have either static or kinetic tones associated with them.

33   Simple tunes. Tunes in which all tones except the nuclear one are static may be referred to as *simple tunes*.   The following example shows the parts into which a simple tune may be divided.

Prehead	*Head*	*Body*	*Nucleus*	*Tail*
ju ʃəd əvˌ	'tould	ˌjoː 'brʌðə tə 'giv wʌn tu	ˎiːtʃ	əv ðəm

34   Prehead. This consists of any unstressed syllables at the beginning of a group.   Normal preheads are pronounced on a rather

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low pitch, but there are two contexts in which high preheads are used, and these must then be marked with the high pitch mark:

1. As a normal element in the intonation of certain words and short phrases conveying salutations, warnings, apologies or encouragement. The nuclear tone is a low rise:

> ˉgud‚bai. ˉbi ‚keəf|. ˉai m ‚sori. ˉoːl ‚rait.

2. As a device for increasing the prominence of an immediately following low tone by introducing a strong pitch contrast:

> ˉhi ‚oːt tə bi. ˉwot ə ʃeim. ˉai ‚nou ‚ðat.

35   Head. This is the first fully stressed syllable of a group containing more than one stressed word. A normal head has a High Level tone, except before a Low Rising nucleus, when a Low Level tone is normal.

> 'mei ai 'teik wʌn?   'dʒon fə'got it.   wi 'aːnt ˏleit.
> ai 'didn̩t 'nou ˏðat.   it ˏizn̩t im‚poːtn̩t.

36   Body. This consists of any syllables, whether stressed or unstressed, lying between the Head and the Nucleus. In a normal body containing level stresses each of these is pitched slightly lower than the preceding one, and any unstressed syllables occupy the same pitch as the stressed syllable with which they are most intimately linked. Thus, in the following example, each of the internal groups is slightly lower than the one that precedes it:

> ju ʃəd əv | 'tould | joː 'brʌðə | tə 'giv wʌn | tu ˏiːtʃ | əv ðəm

37   Nucleus. Since this is the most important intonational element in a group it falls on the word to which the speaker wishes to give the greatest prominence. Any of the other elements in a tune may be absent, but, except in a few special cases, a kinetic tone must always be present to form a nucleus. In some cases the form taken by a nuclear tone varies according to whether or not it falls on the final syllable of its group. The following diagrams show the form taken by each of the five nuclei when they are final.
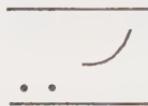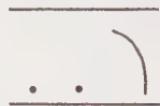
I   ə ju 'ðeə?   II   ðei wə 'hiə.   III   ju l bi ˇleit.
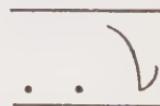
IV ai m sə^praizd.   V wi wər in ⌒taim.

38 Divided nuclei. The final rise which is characteristic of
Tones III and V may occur on a later syllable than that which
bears the fall (of Tone III) or rise-fall (of Tone V). This delayed
rise may occur on the syllable immediately following the fall (or
rise-fall), or it may be separated from it by a series of unstressed
or weakly stressed syllables. As it may be placed on a different
word from that bearing the initial element, these tones may even
embrace the whole sense-group. This transfer of the rising element
of the nucleus has the effect of increasing the prominence of the
word on which it is placed.   It is important to note that all inter-
vening syllables between the two parts of the nucleus must be
pronounced on a low tone, even when they are stressed, and that
the nucleus does not lose its tonetic unity in spite of being divided.
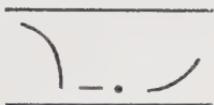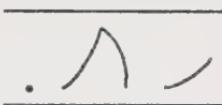
IIID ˋðat ˌiznt ˏrait.   VD ðə ^plei z ˏgud.

39 Tail. This consists of any unstressed or weakly stressed
syllables that follow the nucleus. The examples given in §37 showed
how the five nuclear tones can each be completed on a single (final)
syllable; those given below show the form taken by the same nuclei
when a tail is present. The unstressed syllables in the tail afford
a means of completing the various pitch changes in a more leisurely
fashion, and advantage is always taken of this in the case of the
tunes that end in a rise; in the case of those that end in a fall
the pitch change may or may not be completed on the stressed
syllable. Tails therefore fall into two classes, the rising tail and
the low level tail, of which the tails of Tones I and II may be
regarded as typical respectively.

When Tone I is followed by a tail the syllable bearing the nuclear
stress is pronounced on a low, or comparatively low, pitch, and the
rise is expressed on a series of unstressed or weakly stressed syllables
rising regularly to a higher point. While this series may occupy

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any range of pitches, the range used for questions is generally
mid-pitch to high, and that for statements low-pitch to mid.
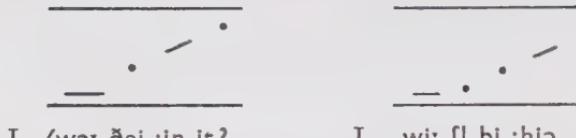
I ′wəː ðei ·in it?   I ˌwiː ∫| bi ·hiə.

When Tone III is followed by a tail the syllable bearing the
nuclear stress falls to a low, or comparatively low, pitch, and the
rise is expressed on the tail, as in the case of Tone I. The range
used for the rise is generally the bottom half of the voice range.
Tone V has a similar tail, with the stressed syllable taking the
initial rise and fall.

III ˇlend it tu əs.   V wi ˄spouk tə ðəm.

When Tone II is followed by a tail the syllable bearing the
nuclear stress may be pronounced with a rapid fall from a high,
or comparatively high, pitch, to a low one, or it may remain level
on the high pitch, with a slight suggestion of a fall at the end.
In either case the tail consists of a series of unstressed or weakly
stressed syllables on a low pitch. If there is no fall on the nuclear
syllable the impression of a fall is conveyed by the sudden drop
from the high pitch of the nucleus to the low pitch of the tail.
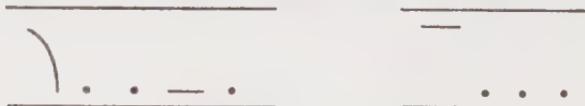
II ′juː wə ðə ˌkʌlprit.   II ′kiːp it fə mi.

The tail of Tone IV has the same form, but the nucleus may be
spread over either two or three syllables instead of one.

IV ˄nouwʌn wəz ˌredi.   IV ˌðat s ˄pəːfiktli ˌtruː.

40 Nuclear incidence. It has been stated that the nuclear tone is placed on the word to which the speaker wishes to give the greatest prominence. Since a speaker's feeling as to which idea is most important in a sentence will vary with the conversational context, it follows that almost any stressable word in a sense-group may bear the nuclear tone. The following are examples of nuclear tone shift, with suggestions as to the context in which each might be used. Two incidental points should be noticed: the adjustments made in the static and partial stresses to adjust the rhythm of the utterance, and the tendency of Tone III to divide when the fall comes early in the sentence.

Tune I. Rise.

    həz 'dʒon ˙red ˙ðis ′buk?   (Simple question)
    həz 'dʒon ˙red ′ðis buk?   (and not the other one)
    həz 'dʒon ′red ðis ˙buk?   (not just glanced at it)
    həz ′dʒon ˙red ðis ˙buk?   (and not someone else)
    ′haz dʒon ˙red ðis ˙buk?   (I doubt it)

Tune II. Fall.

    ai 'soː ˙dʒon hiə ˌjestədi.   (Emphasis on time)
    ai 'soː ˙dʒon ˌhiə ˌjestədi.   (Emphasis on place)
    ai 'soː ˌdʒon hiə ˌjestədi.   (Emphasis on person seen)
    ai ˎsoː dʒon ˌhiə ˌjestədi.   (Emphasis on fact)
    ˎai soː ˌdʒon hiə ˌjestədi.   (Emphasis on person seeing)

Tune III. Fall-Rise.

    'ðat izn̩t ˙oːl ai ˇwont.   (but it may be all I shall get)
    'ðat izn̩t oːl ˇai ˙wont.   (Contrast with someone else)
    'ðat izn̩t ˇoːl ai ˙wont.   (only some of it)
    ˌðat ˎizn̩t ˌoːl ai ˌwont.   (contradiction of affirmative)
    ˎðat izn̩t ˌoːl ai ˌwont.   (Simple protest)

USE OF THE TUNES

41 Functions and meanings. In the following sections the most important functions and meanings of Tunes I, II and III are explained. Tunes IV and V, being more complicated in form and feeling and only occasionally essential, will be used as little as possible in the present work. For ordinary purposes a mastery of Tunes I, II and III will equip a speaker with an adequate English

intonation, it being nearly always possible to use Tone II instead of Tone IV and Tone III instead of Tone V, though there will, of course, be a certain loss of expressiveness. For detailed descriptions of the more complicated tones the reader is referred to specialist works on intonation.

Below are tabulated the principal types of utterance on which Tunes I, II and III are used.

	I. Rise	*II. Fall*	*III. Fall-Rise*
Questions	General	Special	—
Statements	—	Simple	Implicatory
		Straightforward	Doubtful
		Definite	Hesitant
Imperatives	—	Familiar	Polite
		Commands	Entreaties
Exclamations	Interrogative	Normal	—
Salutations	—	Greetings	(Farewells)
Apologies	—	—	Normal
Warnings	—	Urgent	Normal

Notes. The rise referred to in the table is a high one. *All* the types of utterance shown can be given a perfunctory flavour if they are given a low rising nucleus with a low head or prehead.

General questions are those, beginning essentially with an anomalous finite, which can be answered by "Yes" or "No."

Special questions are those, beginning essentially with an interrogative word, which cannot be answered by "Yes" or "No," but require a specific, detailed answer.

The fall-rise on *farewells* is typical of American intonation; in Britain they are given a high prehead followed by a low rise.

42 Tune I, Rise. When used interrogatively the nucleus tends to start on a medium pitch and rise to a high one; in statements it generally starts from a low pitch and rises to a medium one. Tune I is used in:

General questions.

With a low prehead these have a casual sound.

kən ju 'tʃeindʒ it?   məst ai 'rait tu im?

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A high level head on the conjugating finite suggests that the question is being asked with interest.

ˈkan ju ˈtʃeindʒ it ?   ˈmʌst ai ˈrait tu im ?

A high prehead with an emphatic nucleus gives an exclamatory effect.

ˉkən ju ″tʃeindʒ it?   ˉməst ai ″rait tu im ?

Special questions.

When, in order to temporize, a speaker repeats a special question asked by another, he changes the intonation from the normal fall to a rise, thus suggesting the introduction: Did I understand you to ask . . . ?

wot ˈiz it?   ˌwen did ai əˈraiv?

If the interrogative word is given a high head the repetition becomes rhetorical.

ˈwot ˈiz it?   ˈwen did ai əˈraiv?

The rhetorical effect is increased if a high prehead is used, especially with an emphatic nucleus.

ˉwot ″iz it?   ˉwen did ai ə″raiv?

When a special question is used in order to ask for a repetition of information that has already been given (having been either not heard, not understood or forgotten) a rising nucleus is placed on the interrogative word.

ˈwot did ju ˙sei?   ˈweə did ʃi ˙bai it?

An emphatic nucleus makes such questions rhetorical or exclamatory.

″wot did ju ˙sei?   ″weə did ʃi ˙bai it?

Imperatives.

A low rising nucleus makes these sound laconic and often suggests that the hearer ought not to have needed prompting. The head must be low.

ˌput it ˌdaun.   ˌɑːsk im fər əˌnʌðə.

Exclamations.

Interrogative force is given to these by a high rising nucleus,

while a low rise makes them sound laconic. If the nucleus is not on the first syllable a high prehead is used.

ˈou.　　　　ˌou.　　　　ˉhʌˈlou.　　　　ˉhʌˌlou.

43 Tune II, Fall. This nucleus starts on a high or medium pitch and falls to a low one. It is the decided tone, but the decisiveness is sometimes reduced by stopping the fall short of the bottom of the speaker's voice range. It is used in:

General questions.

These are given a falling nucleus in two cases:

1. When a speaker repeats a question which has already been asked, but which has not been answered. This indicates that the speaker is insisting on an answer.

ˈaː ðei ˋkʌmiŋ?　　　　ˈhav ju ˈleid ðə ˋteibl jet?

2. When a speaker uses a question as an exclamation and expects the hearer to agree with him. In British English the negative form of the conjugating finite is always used in these questions.

ˈiznt it ˏwʌndəfl?!　　　　ˈwount ðei bi ˏpliːzd!

A high prehead before a low emphatic fall is very much used.

ˉiznt it ˏwʌndəfl!　　　　ˉwount ðei bi ˏpliːzd!

The nuclear tone may fall on the conjugating finite (§146).

ˋiznt it ˌwʌndəfl!　　　　ˋwount ðei bi ˌpliːzd!

Special questions.

This is the normal intonation for this type of question.   The interrogative word usually takes a high level head.

ˈweə dəz i ˌliv?　　　　ˈhau mʌtʃ | it ˌkost?

If special emphasis is needed on the nuclear word, this must fall from a higher pitch than that occupied by the head.

ˌweə dəz i ˋliv?　　　　ˌhau mʌtʃ | it ˋkost?

Statements.

This is the normal intonation for simple, straightforward, definite statements. Usually both head and nucleus are of the high variety.

ʃi z ˈgetiŋ ˋtiː ˌredi.　　　　ai ˈdount θiŋk it s ˋtruː.

Without changing the tonal arrangement changes can be made in the respective pitches to give greater prominence to either the head or the nucleus.

ʃi z 'getiŋ ˌtiː ˌredi.   ai 'dount θiŋk it s ˌtruː.
ʃi z ˌgetiŋ ˈtiː ˌredi.   ai ˌdount θiŋk it s ˈtruː.

The whole tune can be lowered to give a somewhat perfunctory flavour.

ʃi z ˌgetiŋ ˌtiː ˌredi.   ai ˌdount θiŋk it s ˌtruː.

Imperatives.

A falling nucleus on these gives them the nature of commands, though in familiar speech this tune is often used without a suggestion of impoliteness.

'kʌm ən sit ˌdaun.   'dount ˌwʌri mi.

Exclamations.

This is the normal intonation for most exclamations. There is often a suggestion that the surprise is mixed with satisfaction if the nucleus is high, and with dismay if it is low. The fall is often emphatic.

ˋou! ˋou! ˋaː! ˋaː!   ˌou! ˌou! ˌaː! ˌaː!

Salutations.

This is the formal intonation for greetings. The word **gud** is very seldom stressed.

gud ˋmoːniŋ.   gud 'aːftəˌnuːn.   'hau d ju ˌduː.

Warnings.

An urgent warning may take a falling nucleus.

ˈluk ˌaut!   bi ˋkeəfl̩!   ˈmaind wot ju ə ˌduːiŋ!

44 Tune III, Fall-rise. This nucleus combines the high or low fall of Tune II with the low rise of Tune I to convey an implication, apology or warning, or to soften utterances that might sound too harsh if said with a blunt Tune II. Whether the nucleus is concentrated on one word or divided between two has no effect on the underlying feeling of the tune; the difference is in the relative prominence given to the words involved. This tune is used almost

exclusively for statements (including apologies) and imperatives (including warnings); it is hardly ever heard on questions or exclamations.

Statements.

These always have an implication, that is to say, something unexpressed which the hearer is intended to understand. Various feelings or attitudes are thus conveyed.

1. Doubt.

    hi ˈmei bi ˌðeə.   (but I ˌdoubt it.)
    wi l ˈkʌm if wi ᵛkan.   (but we ˈcan t ˌpromise.)

2. Reservation (low nucleus.)

    it ˈiznt ˌbad.   (ˈnor is it very ˈgood.)
    hi z ˈveri ˌklevə.   (but ˈnot very ˈnice.)

3. Concession (high nucleus.)

    ðei ə ˈraːðər əᵛtraktiv.   (one must adˈmit.)
    ai ˈlaik ðə ᵛfəːst ˈpaːt.   (I conˈcede ˌthat.)

4. Protest.

    ju ˈnevər iŋˌkʌridʒ mi.
    ai m ˈtaiəd əv ˌkworliŋ.

5. Excuse.

    ðei ˈweitid ˈten ˌminits.   (ˌsurely ˌthat was eˌnough.)
    wi ˈaːskt ju if ju ˌwontid wʌn.   (so ˈwhy ˈblame ˈus?)

6. Warning.

    it s ˈgouiŋ tə ˌrein.   (so ˈtake your ˈraincoat.)
    ðei ˈwount ˌlaik it.   (so ˈdon't ˈdo it.)

7. Unwelcome news.

    ai ˈkaːnt ˈweit eni ˌloŋgə.   (I'm aˈfraid.)
    hi ˈwount bi ˈhiə təˌdei.   (I'm, ˌsorry to ˌsay.)

8. Apologies.

    ai m ᵛsori.
    ai ˈbeg joː ˌpaːdn̩.

Tonetics

45, 46

Imperatives.

This is the tune for polite imperatives or requests. If the whole nuclear tone falls on the complement or object it gives it a certain prominence, but various other arrangements are possible. A fall on the verb, or in the negative on "don't," gives the feeling of an entreaty.

'weit fər ‿ʌs.	'dount ˙ʃʌt ðə ᵛwind(o)u.
ᵛweit fər ‿ʌs.	'dount ᵛʃʌt ðə ‿wind(o)u.
ᵛweit fər əs.	ᵛdount ‿ʃʌt ðə ‿wind(o)u.
ᵛweit ˙fɔːr əs.	ᵛdount ‿ʃʌt ðə ˙wind(o)u.

This is also the normal tune for warnings.

ᵛluk ‿aut.	ᵛmaind wot ju ə ‿duːiŋ.

45 Special tune for farewells. A tune that is probably a weakened form of Tune III is used for farewells. It consists of a high prehead followed by a low rise.

⁻gud ‿iːvniŋ.	⁻gud ‿nait.	⁻gud‿bai.

This same tune is also used on a number of short phrases of a miscellaneous nature.   (See also §34.)

⁻ɔːl‿rait.	⁻not ‿bad.	⁻kʌm ‿in.	⁻ou ‿jes.
⁻ai m ‿sori.	⁻it | ‿duː.	⁻veri ‿wel.	⁻bi ‿gud.

46 Compound tunes. When a sense-group is pronounced with more than one kinetic tone it may be said to have a compound tune. In such cases the last of the kinetic tones is the nuclear tone, while the first performs the function of a head to the tune—unless it happens to be preceded by a level head. Any kinetic tones occupying an intermediate position may be regarded as forming part of the body of the tune. Almost any combination of the five tones is possible, but some combinations are much more used than others. Examples are given below of the most frequently occurring combinations of the first three tunes.

I + I, Rising head, rising nucleus.

This compound uses high elements in general questions to give them animation, and low elements in statements and imperatives to give them reassurance or friendliness.

29

ˈiz it ˈðeə?   ˈkaːnt ju ˈhiə mi?

ˌðat | ˌduː.   ðə z ˌplenti əv ˌtaim.

ˌkʌm ən sit ˌdaun.   ˌgiv im əˌnʌðə wʌn.

I + II, Rising head, falling nucleus.

The head of this compound is usually a low rise, which gives the tune more animation than that possessed by the simple Tune II. It may suggest mystification or impatience, according to the context in which it is used. It can be used in both types of question as well as in statements, imperatives and exclamations.

ˌhav ju ˈleid ðə ˈteibl̩?   ˌweə dəz i ˈliv?

ʃi z ˌgetiŋ ˈtiː ˌredi.   ˌai dount ˈlaik ˌðat soːt əv θiŋ.

ˌkʌm ən sit ˈdaun.   ˌwot ə ˌpriti litl̩ ˌhaus!

II + II, Falling head, falling nucleus.

The usual form of this compound is a high fall on the head and a low fall on the nucleus, though other combinations may occur. It is very energetic, and tends to sound dogmatic. It can be used on both types of question as well as on statements, imperatives and exclamations.

ˈaː ju ˌredi?   ˈweə wə ði ˈʌðəz?

it ˈiznt̩ ˌfeə.   ðat s ðə ˈlaːst ˌstroː.

ˈduː sit ˌdaun.   ˈwot ə ˌnjuːsn̩s!

III + II, Falling-rising head, falling nucleus.

The fall on the head of this compound emphasizes the word on which it is placed, while the rise gives a softer effect than do the two blunt falls of the previous compound. On account of the presence of a Tone III this compound is not much used on questions. The Tone III may be divided, and either high or low, while the nuclear tone is usually high.

ˇweə dəz i ˈliv?   ˌðat ˌiznt̩ ˈrait.

ðei ˇmaitnt̩ bi ˈredi.   ˇwiː ʃl̩ biː in ˈlʌndən.

ˇgiv im əˈnʌðə wʌn.   hau ˇnais əv ju tə ˌsei sou.

II + III, Falling head, falling-rising nucleus.

In this compound the fall on the head usually stops before reaching the bottom of the voice range, and the nucleus is a lowered

one.   The tune is implicatory, with a strong stress on the head word.
It is used on statements, imperatives, apologies and warnings, and
most frequently conveys a feeling either of apology or of warning,
according to the context in which it is used.

wi ˋdid ˬwoːn ju.   it ˋwozn̩t ˬdifik|t.

ˋteik ˬsʌm əv ðəm.   ˋdount ˏwoːk tə ði ˏofis.

ai ˋbeg joː ˬpaːdn̩.   ˋduː bi ˬkeəfļ.

31

Parts of Speech

47 A functional classification. In conventional grammars it is usual to recognize the following eight parts of speech: *Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction* and *Interjection.*

This classification has been adhered to as closely as is consistent with the objects of this book, but experience shows that the following modifications are justified on grounds of both logic and expediency. They are based partly on recommendations in the Report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology (1915).

1. All pronouns, demonstratives, articles, numerals, etc., are grouped together under the general heading of *Determiners,* because most of the members of this category may be used indifferently as pronouns or as qualifiers of nouns.

2. Participials functioning as qualifiers are grouped with adjectives.

3. Relatives and interrogatives are grouped with conjunctions under the general term *Connectives.*

In this book, therefore, the eight parts of speech will be:

    A. Nouns.
    B. Determiners (with Semi-Pronouns and Pronouns).
    C. Adjectives (including Participials).
    D. Verbs (Finites and Verbals).
    E. Adverbs (and Adverbials).
    F. Prepositions (and Phrases).
    G. Connectives (with Relatives and Interrogatives).
    H. Interjections (and Exclamations).

A. Nouns

FORMAL CLASSIFICATION

48 Varieties of nouns. A noun is defined as a word used to
name a person or thing. Nouns vary greatly in form and degree
of complexity, from words such as ˈkat, ˈbuk, ˈman, which are
simple roots, through forms like ˈprezn̩s, ˈmesiʤ, əˈriθmətik, which
are for all practical purposes indecomposable, and others such
as ˈhait, ˈfren(d)ʃip, riˈsiːt, formed by adding more or less obsolete
affixes to recognizable roots (many of which are modified in form
or meaning) to words like ˈdrainis, ˈtiːtʃə, ˈoupniŋ, imˈpruːvmənt,
which are clearly derivatives, being formed from existing words by
adding living affixes.

All the foregoing examples consist of simple roots or roots to
which affixes have been added and which may therefore be called
derivatives, but a further stage is reached when two or more roots
are joined to form what is known as a compound word. These
also show variations in form, ranging from intimate combinations
such as ˈgran(d)faːðə, ˈpainapl̩, ˈwaitwoʃ through more obvious
combinations like ˈteibl̩ˌkloθ, ˈriːdiŋˌlamp, ˈʌndəˌklou(ð)z to words
in which the independent meaning of each component remains
undimmed, as in 'gudˈwil, 'wiːkˈend, 'θaŋksˈgiviŋ.

49 Simple and derivative nouns. The following categories,
ranging almost imperceptibly from one extreme to the other, will
give some idea of the various formal characteristics of these nouns.

a. ˈkat, ˈbuk, ˈman, ˈteibl̩, ˈfraːns, ˈwind(o)u.

b. ˈreiliŋ, ˈsiːliŋ, ˈstokiŋ,

c. ˈlektʃə*, ˈpiktʃə*, ˈmikstʃə*,
ˈmeʒə*, ˈpleʒə*, ˈpreʃə*,
ʤiˈoləʤi, əˈstronəmi,

əˈriθmətik, fəˈnetiks, 'maθ(ə)ˈmatiks,
ədˈvaːntiʤ, ˈkʌriʤ, ˈmesiʤ,
ˈprezn̩s, ˈabsn̩s, ˈdistəns, ˈkonʃn̩s,
ˈleŋθ, ˈbretθ, ˈdepθ, ˈtruːθ,
ˈhait, ˈθeft,

d. ˈkɪŋdəm, ˈfriːdəm, ˈwɪzdəm,
   ˈtʃaɪldhud, ˈneibəhud, ˈpriːsthud,
   ˈfrendʃip, ˈtʃeəmənʃip,
   ˈdrainis, ˈilnis, ˈgudnis.

e. əˈtendənt, ˈsəːvənt, ˈstjuːdn̩t, lefˈtenənt, iˈkwivələnt,
   ˈaːtist, ˈkemist, ˈsouʃlist,
   ˈprinˈses,
   ˈkauntis, ˈhoustis,
   ˈdʒapəˈniːz, ˈpoːtjuˈgiːz,
   ˈrʌʃn̩, əˈmerikən, iˈtaljən, noːˈwiːdʒən,
   ˈdifikl̩ti, ˈdʒenəˈrositi, ˈopəˈtjuːniti,
   ˈkonvəˈseiʃn̩, kəˈlekʃn̩, ˈinstiˈtjuːʃn̩, əˈsousiˈeiʃn̩,
   diˈviʒn̩, diˈsiʒn̩, əˈkeiʒn̩, əˈpinjən.

f. əˈreindʒmənt, imˈpruːvmənt, iŋˈgeidʒmənt, ədˈvəːtizmənt,
   ˈtiːtʃə*, ˈraitə*, fəˈtogrəfə*, biˈginə*, ˈforinə*, ˈdoktə*,
      ˈeditə*, ˈoːθə*,
   ˈfiːliŋ, biˈginiŋ, ˈoupniŋ, ˈmiːniŋ, etc. etc.

50 Compound nouns. There are many classes and varieties of compound nouns. Examples:

a. ˈblakbəːd, ˈblakboːd, ˈgranfaːðə*, ˈiŋgliʃmən.
b. ˈskuːlrum, ˈiŋkstand, ˈteibl̩kloθ, ˈlanloːd, ˈsʌnʃeid.
c. ˈbuk₍baindiŋ, ˈhand₍raitiŋ, ˈwud₍kaːviŋ, ˈblʌd₍poizn̩iŋ.
d. ˈpaundzwəθ, ˈʃiliŋzwəθ, ˈpeniwəθ *or* ˈpenəθ.
e. ˈkaːviŋ₍naif, ˈswimiŋ₍matʃ, ˈwoːkiŋ₍stik, ˈsitiŋrum.
f. ˈbrʌðərin₍loː, ˈfaːðərin₍loː, ˈdoːtərin₍loː.
g. ˈskuːl₍tiːtʃə*, ˈboks₍meikə*, ˈkloθ₍manju₍faktʃərə*.

There are also many established collocations that may be regarded as compound nouns. Notice the differences in stress in the following examples. Words taking the stress-pattern (ˈ ₍) are said to be single-stressed, while those taking the pattern (ˈ ˈ) are said to be double-stressed.

Noun + noun

ˈbei ˈwindu	ˈgaːdn̩ ˈsiti
ˈkamp ˈtʃeə*	ˈmeidn̩ ˈneim
ˈfaːm ˈhaus	ˈseilə ˈhat

Possessive noun + noun

ˋbəːdz ˌnest   'fraiəz ˋbɔːlsm̩
ˋdeθs ˌhed   'kwiːnz ˋkaunsl̩
ˋleidiz ˌmeid   'seiləz ˋnot

Present participle + noun

ˋbɔːdiŋ ˌhaus   'kaːstiŋ ˋvout
ˋlendiŋ ˌlaibrəri   'liːdiŋ ˋaːtikl̩
ˋraitiŋ ˌdesk   'wəːkiŋ ˋklaːs

Past participle + noun

'kaːst ˋaiən   'oild ˋsilk
'kʌt ˋglaːs   'spotid ˋfiːvə*

51   Dual function words. Some words function as either nouns or verbs without undergoing any change of form:

ˋhelp, ˋtʃeindʒ, ˋpuʃ, ˋdʒʌmp, ˋaːnsə*, ˋlaːf, ˋwoːk, ˋwəːk, etc.

Some of these combine with adverbial particles to form compound or group-words:

'tʃeindʒ ˋouvə*   it s 'taim fər ə 'tʃeindʒ ˌouvə.
'lai ˋdaun   ai m 'gouiŋ tə ˈhav ə 'lai ˌdaun.
'luk ˋraund   'let s ˈhav ə 'luk ˌraund.

Certain nouns differ slightly from verbs with which they are related. The examples on the left are different in spelling as well as pronunciation, while those on the right differ only in pronunciation and therefore require special care.

Noun.	*Verb.*		*Noun.*	*Verb.*
ˋlaif	ˋliv		ˋjuːs	ˋjuːz
riˋsiːt	riˋsiːv		ˋrekoːd	riˋkoːd
ˋfuːd	ˋfiːd		ˋekstrakt	ikˋstrakt
ədˋvais	ədˋvaiz		ˋinsʌlt	inˋsʌlt.

A certain number of words that usually function as adjectives (including past participles) are used also as plural nouns.

ðə ˌritʃ   = 'ritʃ ˌpiːpl̩
ðə ˌfrentʃ   = ðə 'frentʃ ˌpiːpl̩ .
ðə 'kild ən ˌwuːndid   = ðə 'kild ən 'wuːndid ˌpiːpl̩ .
ði ˌindʒəd   = ði 'indʒəd ˌpiːpl̩ .

INFLEXIONS OF THE NOUN

52 The two inflexions. The noun is subject to only two inflexions: 1. Plural. 2. Genitive.

The noun is not inflected for gender or for any other case than the genitive. The limitations in the use of the genitive are set forth in §56.

53 The plural inflexion. The regular plural of nouns is formed by adding to the singular:

    a. **iz** after the sibilant consonants **s, z, ʃ, ʒ**;

    b. **s** after the voiceless consonants **p, t, k, f, θ**;

    c. **z** in all other cases.

a.   *Plural* in **iz**:

hoːs	ˋhoːsiz	saiz	ˋsaiziz
pleis	ˋpleisiz	praiz	ˋpraiziz
ˋpromis	ˋpromisiz	disˋgaiz	disˋgaiziz
boks	ˋboksiz	feiz	ˋfeiziz
fiʃ	ˋfiʃiz	eidʒ	ˋeidʒiz
diʃ	ˋdiʃiz	dʒʌdʒ	ˋdʒʌdʒiz
intʃ	ˋintʃiz	ˋkaridʒ	ˋkaridʒiz
tʃəːtʃ	ˋtʃəːtʃiz	ˋlaŋgwidʒ	ˋlaŋgwidʒiz

b.   *Plural in* **s**:

kʌp	kʌps	paːt	paːts	seif	seifs
stamp	stamps	striːt	striːts	ruːf	ruːfs
strap	straps	buk	buks	klif	klifs
ʃop	ʃops	klok	kloks	mʌnθ	mʌnθs
hat	hats	foːk	foːks	deθ	deθs
nait	naits	woːk	woːks	tenθ	tenθs

c.   *Plural in* **z**:

kab	kabz	ˋpensɭ	ˋpensɭz	flai	flaiz
koːd	koːdz	kiː	kiːz	kau	kauz
leg	legz	staː*	staːz	boi	boiz
neim	neimz	loː	loːz	aiˋdiə	aiˋdiəz
pen	penz	ʃuː	ʃuːz	peə*	peəz
θiŋ	θiŋz	fəː*	fəːz	ʃoə*	ʃoəz
lʌv	lʌvz	dei	deiz	kjuə*	kjuəz
leið	leiðz	tou	touz		

54 Irregular plurals. A certain number of nouns in f, θ and one in s replace these voiceless consonants by the corresponding voiced one in the plural.

The following replace f by vz:

li:f	li:vz	louf	louvz	-self	-selvz
θi:f	θi:vz	naif	naivz	ʃelf	ʃelvz
ha:f	ha:vz	laif	laivz	wulf	wulvz
ka:f	ka:vz	waif	waivz		

The following replace θ by ðz:

pa:θ	pa:ðz	ju:θ	ju:ðz	ouθ	ouðz
ba:θ	ba:ðz	tru:θ	tru:ðz	mauθ	mauðz

The following replaces s by ziz:

haus	˴hauziz

A certain number of nouns form the plural quite irregularly· The chief of these are:

man	men	tu:θ	ti:θ	maus	mais
˴wumən	˴wimin	gu:s	gi:s	oks	˴oksn̩
tʃaild	˴tʃildrn̩	fut	fi:t	˴peni	˴pens[1]

A few foreign words have special plural forms. The chief of these are:

'memə˴randəm	'memə˴randə	˴siəriz	˴siəri:z
pə˴renθisis	pə˴renθisi:z	˴dʒi:nəs	˴dʒenərə
fi˴nominən	fi˴nominə	˴fo:mjulə	˴fo:mjuli:[2]

The prefix-title ˴mistə forms its plural in ˴mesəɹ, but this is generally avoided by saying mistə ˌsmiθ ənd mistə ˴braun or ðə 'tu: mistə ˴braunz.

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[1] Weakened in compounds to pəns or pn̩s. Example ˴sikspəns. ˴peni forms a regular plural in ˴peniz when meaning *coins* and not the value of the coins. The word ˴sikspəns (meaning the coin) forms a regular plural ˴sikspənsiz.

[2] Or ˴fo:mjuləz.

The following nouns are invariable:

diə*	diə*	fiʃ	fiʃ[1]
ʃiːp	ʃiːp	traut	traut
ˋdʒentˌmən	ˋdʒentˌmən	kod	kod
ˋwəːkmən	ˋwəːkmən	ˋsamən	ˋsamən[2]
ˋiŋgliʃmən	ˋiŋgliʃmən	pleis	pleis[2]
and other compounds of -mən.		and a few other names of fishes.	

A few nouns exist only in the plural. The chief of these are:

ˋpiːpˌ,[3] ˋdeitə,[4] klouðz, ˋkatˌ, ˋvəːmin, ˋwiskəz, ˋweidʒiz.[4]

Adjectives and participles used as nouns are plural in meaning, but are not marked by any plural inflexion:

ðə ˌritʃ, ðə ˌpuə, ðə ˌfrentʃ, ðə ˌwuːndid, ðə ˌdaiiŋ.

55 The genitive inflexion. The genitive is marked by adding to the preceding noun (or, in some cases, to the last member of the noun group):

a.   iz after the sibilant consonants s, z, ʃ, ʒ;
b.   s after the voiceless consonants p, t, k, f, θ;
c.   z in all other cases.

a. *Genitive in* -iz:

	hoːs	ˋhoːsiz	(mistə) welz		ˋwelziz
	niːs	ˋniːsiz	(mistə) ˋstiːvn̩z		ˋstiːvn̩ziz
	nəːs	ˋnəːsiz	(mistə) maːʃ		ˋmaːʃiz
(mistə)	koks	ˋkoksiz	(mistə) buʃ		ˋbuʃiz
	dʒeimz	ˋdʒeimziz	dʒʌdʒ		ˋdʒʌdʒiz
(mistə)	dʒounz	ˋdʒounziz	dʒoːdʒ		ˋdʒoːdʒiz

b. *Genitive in* -s:

ˋbiʃəp	ˋbiʃəps	djuːk	djuːks	ˋdʒouzif	ˋdʒouzifs
wosp	wosps	ˋkritik	ˋkritiks	smiθ	smiθs
kat	kats	θiːf	θiːfs	iˋlizəbəθ	iˋlizəbəθs
ˋinfənt	ˋinfənts	waif	waifs	ruːθ	ruːθs

[1] Also ˋfiʃiz.
[2] Traditional spellings *salmon* and *plaice*.
[3] In the sense of "persons," not of "race."
[4] Except in the phrases ðə ˌdeitəm ˌlain and ə ˋlivin ˌweidʒ.

c. Genitive in -z:

rob	robz	dʌv	dʌvz	dei	deiz
frend	frendz	fuːl	fuːlz	krou	krouz
dog	dogz	ˈleˈsiː	ˈleˈsiːz	kau	kauz
lam	lamz	ʃaː	ʃaːz	boi	boiz
man	manz	ʃoː*	ʃoːz	meə*	meəz
kiŋ	kiŋz	kruː	kruːz	ˈdoktə*	ˈdoktəz

Irregular plural nouns formed without adding iz, s or z (§54) form their genitive according to the rule:

men	menz	ˈwəːkmən	ˈwəːkmənz	giːs	ˈgiːsiz
ˈwimin	ˈwiminz	ˈpiːpl̩	ˈpiːpl̩z	diə	diəz
ˈtʃildrn̩	ˈtʃildrn̩z	mais	ˈmaisiz	ʃiːp	ʃiːps

Plural nouns formed by adding iz, s or z (§53) are used as genitives without any modification:

ˈdʒʌdʒiz	ˈdʒʌdʒiz	ˈbiʃəps	ˈbiʃəps	frendz	frendz
ˈhoːsiz	ˈhoːsiz	aːnts	aːnts	ˈdoktəz	ˈdoktəz
		klaːks	klaːks		

56 Uses of the genitive. In Spoken English the genitive inflexion is almost exclusively used in connection with:

a. Names of Persons:

   'dʒonz ˌbuk   = ðə 'buk biˈloŋiŋ tə ˌdʒon.
   mistə 'harisiz ˌhat = ðə 'hat biˈloŋiŋ tə mistə ˌharis.

b. Names designating Persons:

   mai 'brʌðəz ˌhaus = ðə 'haus biˈloŋiŋ tə mai ˌbrʌðə.
   ðə 'beikəz ˌʃop   = ðə 'ʃop biˈloŋiŋ tə ðə ˌbeikə.
   ðə 'menz ˌkleimz = ðə 'kleimz ˈmeid bai ðə ˌmen.

c. Names of Pet Animals:

   'tabiz ˌbaːskit = ðə 'baːskit weə ˌtabi (ðə ˌkat) ˌsliːps.
   'faidouz ˌkenl̩ = ðə 'kenl̩ weə ˌfaidou (ðə ˌdog) ˌsliːps.

d. Names designating Animals:

   ə 'kats ˌwiskəz = ðə 'wiskəz on ə ˈkats ˌfeis.
   ðə 'dogz ˌkolə   = ðə 'kolə ðət ə ˌdog ˌweəz.
   ðə 'hoːsiz ˌteil   = 'ðat 'paːt əv ə ˈhoːs koːld ðə ˌteil.
   ə ˈlaiənz den   = ə 'den ˈokjupaid bai ə ˌlaiən (*or* ˌlaiənz).
   ə ˈwosps nest   = ə 'nest ˈbilt ənd ˈokjupaid bai ˌwosps.

e. Certain words logically intermediate between nouns and adverbs of time and duration:

tə'deiz ˏpeipə   = ðə 'peipə ˈpʌbliʃt təˏdei.

'jestədiz ˏmeil   = ðə 'meil 'ritn̩ ɔː riˈsiːvd ˏjestədi.

'laːst wiːks ˏnjuːz = ðə 'njuːz riˈsiːvd 'laːst ˏwiːk.

ə 'θriː ˈjiəz ˏstei = ə 'stei əv ðə djuˈreiʃn̩ əv 'θriː ˏjiəz.

It will be noticed that the examples of the genitive given in §55 all come under one of the above categories.

57   Theory of the genitive.   On logical grounds the genitive may be considered as an independent word coming under the heading of *syntax*, for it may be separated from the noun and attached to the last member of the noun-group:

ðə 'man aiˈsɔː ˈjestədiz ˏfaːðə = ðə 'faːðər əv ðə 'man ai ˈsɔː ˏjestədi.

ðə 'kiŋ əv ˈiŋləndz ˏkraun = ðə 'kraun əv ðə ˈkiŋ əv ˏiŋlənd.

Traditionally, however, it is an inflected form of the noun to which it is nominally attached.   In justification of this view it is urged that with plural nouns in z, s or iz, the plural inflexion and genitive modification are merged together:

ðə 'pjuːpl̩z ˏeksəsaiziz may mean ði 'eksəsaiziz əv ðə ˏpjuːpl̩ or ði 'eksəsaiziz əv ðə ˏpjuːpl̩z.[1]

It would seem to be more convenient to regard such a collocation as ðə kiŋ əv iŋland as a grammatical unit.   If we then, following Sweet and others, treat the genitive as an inflexion, it will naturally (since it is a suffix) be added to the end of the unit.

QUALIFICATION OF NOUNS

58   Position of qualifier.   Nouns may be qualified by various parts of speech, some of which precede the noun, while others follow it, as shown in the following list:

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[1] These two meanings are differentiated in traditional spelling by the two forms: *The pupil's exercises* and *The pupils' exercises.*

Preceding the Noun	*Following the Noun*
Nouns	Nouns in Apposition
Possessive Nouns	A few Adjectives
Determiners	Relative Clauses
Adjectives	Prepositional Phrases
Verbals (Participles)	Verbals (Infinitives)
Adverbs	

The stressing of the collocations that consist of a noun and its qualifier is variable, and will be explained in the next two sections.

59 Qualifiers preceding the noun.   The normal stressing of this arrangement is a static stress on the qualifier (except for the articles) and a kinetic stress on the noun.

a. Nouns qualifying nouns.

'poːk ˌpai	'oksfəd ˌroud	'loːd ˌmeə*
'fiʃ ˌsoːs	'oksfəd ˌavinju	'foːpni ˌstamp
'oliv ˌoil	'tʃaːnsəri ˌlein	'ʃiliŋ ˌfeə*
'stiːl ˌpen	'lestə ˌskweə*	'tenʃiliŋ ˌnout
'leðə ˌbag	'tʃeəriŋ ˌkros	'kʌntri ˌwoːk
'kamp ˌtʃeə*	'lʌndən ˌbridʒ	'gaːdṇ ˌwoːl
'ʃop ˌwindu	'douvə ˌhaːbə*	'famili ˌsəːkḷ

However, the kinetic stress is transferred to the qualifier when it is desired to give it a sense of contrast or contradiction:

ə ˋpoːk ˌpai z ˌnaisə ðṇ ə ˌviːl ən ˌham ˈpai.
ˋlʌndən bridʒ iz ˌniərə ðṇ ˌwesminstə ˈbridʒ.
ə ˋʃiliŋ ˌfeə, 'not ə ˋtuː ˌʃiliŋ ˌfeə.

Names of thoroughfares containing the word striːt as their second component take the stress on their first component.   In this they differ from other names of thoroughfares such as roud, lein, kros, etc.

ˋhai ˌstriːt   ˋkwiːn ˌstriːt   ˋoksfəd ˌstriːt

As shown in §50, there are collocations of noun + noun which may be regarded as compound nouns.   This is particularly the case when such collocations are normally single-stressed, with the kinetic stress falling on the first element, or qualifier, as it does in the following cases:

ˈiŋkpot	ˈletə͵boks	ˈgeitwei
ˈai͵glaːsiz	ˈnjuːs͵peipə*	ˈkoul͵selə*
ˈtiːpot	ˈhaus͵kiːpə*	ˈkoul͵main
ˈbiskit ͵tin	ˈmilkmən	ˈeəpoːt
ˈteibl͵͵kloθ	ˈwul͵məːtʃn̩t	ˈlan(d)maːk

b. Possessive nouns qualifying nouns.

Both single and double stress are used in these collocations:

Single-stressed	*Double-stressed*
ˈbəːdz͵nest	ˈkam|z ͵heə*
ˈkats͵miːt	ˈprintəz ͵ink
ˈleidiz͵meid	ˈtravləz ͵tʃek
ˈbiːz͵waks	ə ˈwiːks ͵holidi

c. Determiners qualifying nouns.

All the determiners except the pronouns and semi-pronouns can be used to qualify nouns. Copious examples supplementing the following will be found in §§71–94.

mai ˈpen	sm̩ ˈtikits	ˈsiksti ͵men
ˈðiːz ˈbuks	ˈveəriəs ʃops	ðə ˈθəːd ͵taim
ə ˈhaus	iˈnʌf ͵trʌbl̩	

d. Adjectives qualifying nouns.

When this type of collocation becomes established it acquires the status of a compound noun and frequently takes single stress, but the great majority of cases where an independent adjective qualifies a noun have double stress:

ˈgud ͵buk	ˈould ͵eidʒ	ˈbritiʃ ͵komən͵welθ
ˈbig ͵ruːm	ˈhapi ͵bəːθdei	ˈpraim ͵ministə*
ˈmein ͵dek	ˈpʌblik ͵skuːl	ˈwait ͵elifn̩t

As in the case of nouns qualifying nouns, the kinetic stress may be transferred to the qualifier to give it a sense of contrast or contradiction:

ˈðis iz ðə ˈmein ͵dek, ˈnot ðə ͵bout ˙dek.

A considerable number of stress doublets occur, in which double stress gives a general meaning and single stress a specialized meaning to these collocations, especially if the adjective denotes a colour. In the following examples the double-stressed collocation is to be

taken literally; the specialized meaning of the single-stressed compound is given:

'broːd ˌʃiːt	ˋbroːdʃiːt	(leaflet)
'daːk ˌruːm	ˋdaːkˌruːm	(photographic laboratory)
'hot ˌpleit	ˋhotˌpleit	(part of a stove)
'grei ˌbiəd	ˋgreibiəd	(old man)
'griːn ˌhaus	ˋgriːnhaus	(glass building for plants)

e. Participles qualifying nouns.

Nouns may be qualified by either the present (active) participle or the past (passive) participle.

The single-stressed examples of this combination may be said to be established compound words, usually written with a hyphen; the collocations are all double-stressed in normal contexts.

Active Participles	*Passive Participles*
ən 'intristiŋ ˌbuk	ə 'spoilt ˌtʃaild
ə 'taiəriŋ ˌdei	'broukən ˌglaːs
'rʌniŋ ˌwoːtə*	ə 'kʌt ˌfiŋgə*
ðə 'raiziŋ ˌtaid	ði ju'naitid ˌsteits
'muːviŋ ˌpiktʃəz	ə 'komplikeitid məˌʃiːn

f. Adverbs qualifying nouns.

From the logical point of view a certain number of adverbs are used to qualify nouns.[1]

hi z 'kwait ə ˌman !	ʃi z 'riəli ən ˋonlukə.
it s ˋmiəli ən əˌpinjən.	ði ə'bʌv igˌzaːmp|z.
hi z ˋounli ə ˌtʃaild.	auə 'neksˑdoː ˌneibəz.
ðat s 'skeəsli (*or* 'haːdli) ə 'feər ˌaːgjumənt.	
ju 'koːl ▪ðat ə ʺhil! it s ˌoːlmoust ə ˋmauntin.	
'niəli ə ˋjiə ˌpaːst biˌfoːr ai ˌhəːd frəm im əˌgein.	

60 Qualifiers following the noun. These cases have more the nature of a sentence structure, and the kinetic tone will normally fall on the qualifier as the last important element in the sense-group. The noun takes a static stress.

[1] "A noun-modifying adverb evidently approaches very near in function to an adjective. In such a construction as *he is quite a gentleman* we feel that *quite* is not an adjective, because if it were, it would come after instead of before, the article *a*."—Sweet's *New English Grammar*, §312.

a.   *Nouns qualified by nouns in apposition.*

Each of the two parts of the apposition takes the same kinetic tone:

> did ju 'siː 'braun ðə ˈloːjə?   ai ˌsoː ˋbraun ðə ˋloːjə.
>
> ˌlʌndən, ðə 'kapitəl əv ˌiŋglənd.
>
> ˌbraun, ðə 'man ai wəz 'toːkiŋ əbaut dʒʌst ˌnau.

b. Nouns qualified by post-positional adjectives.

In a limited number of cases the adjective is placed after the noun it qualifies. These cases are mostly of an historical, religious or official character and may nearly all be considered as established compounds. The following are among those usually written as separate words:

'bat‖ ˌroiəl	'kʌzn̩ ˌdʒəːmən	'eər əˌparn̩t
'biʃəp ˌsʌfrəgən	'envoi iksˌtroːdn̩ri	'pouit ˌloːriit
'kəːn‖ 'komənˌdant	'gʌm ˌarəbik	'treʒə ˌtrouv

c. Nouns qualified by relative clauses.

> ðə 'man u 'keim ˌhiə.   ðə 'man ai wəz ˌspiːkiŋ tu.
>
> ðə 'man ai 'soː ˌjestədi.   ðə 'letər ai riˈsiːvd laːst ˌnait.
>
> ðə 'wʌn ðət wəz in ði 'ʌðə ˌruːm.
>
> ðə 'man uːz ˌhaus wi wə ˌlukiŋ at ˌlaːst ˌwiːk.

d. Nouns qualified by prepositional phrases.[1]

> ðə 'striːts əv ˌlʌndən   ðə 'bei əv ˌneip‖z
>
> ðə 'top əv ðə ˌhil   ði 'end əv ðə ˌdei
>
> ðə 'buk on ðə ˌteib‖   ðə 'man in ðə 'nekst ˌhaus
>
> ðə 'wʌn in ˌkwestʃn̩   ðə 'man frəm ˌkuks
>
> ðə 'haus ˈouvə ðə ˌwei   ðə 'man wið ə ˋbiəd

e. Nouns qualified by infinitives.

> 'wot s ðə 'best θiŋ tə ˌduː?
>
> 'hiə z ə ˌbuk fə ju tə ˌriːd.
>
> ˋðis iz ðə ˌtriː tə bi ˌkʌt ˌdaun.

---

[1] Logically, however, the prepositional phrase sometimes contains the more important noun. "The nucleus of the group *a piece of bread* is *bread*, for *piece*, although grammatically the head word of the group, is really little more than a form-word."—Sweet's *New English Grammar*, §120. See also *Ibid.*, §61.

LOGICAL CLASSIFICATION

61 Logical categories of nouns. The following is a useful
scheme of classification of nouns according to their logical categories.

Nouns $\begin{cases} \textit{Abstract } \text{(dei)} \\ \textit{Concrete} \begin{cases} \textit{Proper } \text{(dʒon)} \\ \textit{Common} \begin{cases} \textit{Material } \text{(wɔːtə)} \\ \textit{Class} \begin{cases} \textit{Collective } \text{(kraud)} \\ \\ \textit{Individual } \text{(buk)} \end{cases} \end{cases} \end{cases} \end{cases}$
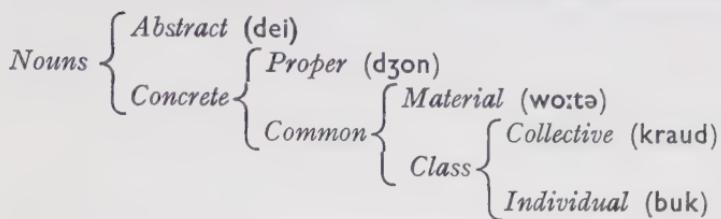
Abstract nouns.

These name non-material objects, ideas, qualities, states or
actions:

ˈdei, ˈnait, ˈweðə, ˈʃad(o)u, ˈnoːθ, ˈbjuːti, ˈdaːknis, ˈleŋθ,
ˈsaiz, ˈkonvəˈseiʃn̩, ˈpruːf, ˈtʃois;

and are opposed to *Concrete nouns*, such as:

ˈdʒon, ˈiŋglənd, ˈlʌndən, ˈwɔːtə, ˈfəːnitʃə, ˈkraud, ˈskai, ˈtʃɔːk,
ˈbuk, ˈman,

which are subdivided into *Proper nouns* and *Common nouns*.

Proper nouns.

These name a single person, animal or place:

ˈdʒon, ˈflʌʃ (dog's name), ˈiŋglənd, ˈlʌndən,

and are opposed to *Common nouns*, such as:

ˈwɔːtə, ˈfəːnitʃə, ˈkraud, ˈskai, ˈtʃɔːk, ˈbuk, ˈman,

which are subdivided into *Material nouns* and *Class nouns*.

Material nouns.

These name substances:

ˈwɔːtə, ˈsand, ˈkloθ, ˈwul, ˈtʃɔːk, ˈwud, ˈaiən,

and are opposed to *Class nouns*, such as:

ˈkraud, ˈkʌmpəni, kəˈlekʃn̩, ˈbuk, ˈhaus, ˈman,

which are subdivided into *Collective nouns* and *Individual nouns*.

Collective nouns.

These, though they have a singular form, name a number of individuals:

ˋkraud, ˋkʌmpəni, kəˋlekʃṇ, ˋɑːmi, ˋklaːs.

Individual nouns.

These name individuals that belong to a class:

ˋbuk, ˋtʃeə, ˋhaus, ˋtriː, ˋman, ˋhoːs.

The body referred to by a collective noun may be regarded either as an entity or as a collection of individuals. In the former case the noun should be treated as singular and in the latter case as plural. The elements affected are pronouns, possessives and finites, which must agree in number with the collective noun, and care must be taken not to mix singulars and plurals in the same sentence.

Singular : ðə 'kaunsḷ əz 'deligeitid its ˙pauəz tu ə kəˋmiti.

Plural :   ðə kəˋmiti ə kənˈsidəriŋ 'weðə ðeə ˙pauəz ə səˋfiʃṇt.

62 Countables and uncountables. Nouns which stand for things which can be *counted* are called Nouns of Discontinuous Quantity,[1] or more succinctly, *Countables*. They may be singular or plural: 'wʌn ˋbuk. 'tuː ˋbuks.

Nouns which stand for things which cannot be counted (but which may sometimes be *measured*) are called Nouns of Continuous Quantity, or more succinctly, *Uncountables*. These are always singular, but cannot be qualified by the indefinite article or the numeral wʌn.

Uncountables may be concrete or abstract:

a. Concrete.

ˋwud, ˋwul, ˋaiən, ˋkloθ, ˋpeipə*, ˋgraːs, ˋglaːs, ˋtʃoːk, ˋstoun, ˋsand, ˋmiːt, ˋbred, ˋwoːtə*, ˋfəːnitʃə*, ˋklouðiŋ, məˋʃiːnəri.

b. Abstract.

ˋhapinis, ˋbjuːti, ˋdaːknis, ˋlait, ˋhelθ, ˋkwiknis, ˋsʌnʃain, ˋloː, ˋmjuːzik, ˋweðə*, ˋrein, ˋwind.

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[1] *Cf.* Sweet's *New English Grammar*, §232.

Many uncountables, however, may become countables when used in the sense of "a kind of":

'tuː 'difrənt ˋbredz	=	two different kinds of bread.
ˋgraːsiz	=	different kinds of grass.
'ðiːz ˋwulz	=	these qualities of wool.

Certain nouns may be uncountables or countables according to the meaning in which they are used:

Uncountables	*Countables*
ˋaiən (the metal)	ən ˋaiən (used for making linen smooth).
ˋloː (jurisprudence)	ə ˋloː (a statute, etc.).
ˋglaːs (the substance)	ə ˋglaːs (for drinking, telescope or mirror).
ˋwud (the substance)	ə ˋwud (a collection of trees).

63 Grammatical functions of nouns. From the grammatical point of view nouns may function in any of the following capacities:

a. As subject of a sentence:

> ðə 'man keim ˌhiə.

b. As subject-predicate:

> 'ðat s ə ˋman.

e. As direct object:

> ai 'met ə ˋman.

d. As indirect object:

> ai 'geiv ðə ˙man ðə ˌbuk.
> ai 'got ðə ˙man ə ˌdʒob.

e. As prepositional object:

> ai 'geiv it tə ðə ˌman.
> ai wəz 'weitiŋ fə mai ˌfrend.

f. As object-complement:

> ðei i'lektid im ˋprezidənt.

g. As qualifiers of other nouns:

> ðə 'gaːdn ˌwoːl. 'lʌndən ˌbridʒ.

47

B. Determiners

THE TEN CLASSES

64 Definition. There exists a class of words which may be used, like adjectives, to qualify nouns, or, like pronouns, to stand instead of them. In other words, they may be used either adjectivally or pronominally, though in a few cases they differ in form according to which of these two capacities they are used in. Some grammarians consider these words to be pronouns that can be used adjectivally, while others consider them as adjectives that can be used pronominally.

In view of this difficulty in drawing any clear line of demarcation between their grammatical functions, and since they all serve, like the pronouns proper, to indicate or determine what person or thing is being referred to, the simplest and most rational plan would seem to be to add the pronouns proper to these words in order to form a general category of *determiners*, and to specify in the case of each word whether it may be used as an adjective, as a pronoun or as either.

65 Classification. A convenient classification of words coming under the heading of determiners is the following:

1. Semi-Pronouns: wʌn, sʌmbodi, nʌθiŋ, etc.
2. Pronouns: ai, him, juː, ðəmˈselvz, etc.
3. Possessives: mai, joə, həːz, auər ˈoun, etc.
4. Demonstratives: ðis, ðat, ðiːz, ðouz.
5. Articles: ei, an, ðiː.
6. Partitives: sʌm, eni, nou, nʌn.
7. Article-Analogues: bouθ, iːtʃ, seim, etc.
8. Quantitatives: mʌtʃ, les, lots (əv), etc.
9. Numericals: tuː, θəːti, meni, fjuə*, etc.
10. Ordinals: fəːst, foːtiiθ, nekst, laːst, etc.

Each of these classes will now be described in detail, and examples will be given of their use.

THE SEMI-PRONOUNS

66 The semi-pronoun wʌn. In addition to its functions as an indefinite pronoun (§§68–70) and as a numerical determiner (§88) the word wʌn has a special role in combination with adjectives, certain determiners, and the conjunctive and interrogative witʃ. It is then comparable in meaning to *individual, variety* or *species*, and since it has a plural form wʌnz it can indicate whether the word with which it is associated refers to one, or more than one, person or thing. The collocation into which it enters has the status of a noun. Sweet calls it an unmeaning noun-pronoun, or a prop-word. The following are examples of its use.

With Demonstratives (*usually confined to the singular*).

 ai ˌwont ˋðat wʌn, ˋnot ˌðis wʌn.

With Articles.

 ˈjuː ˌaːr ə ˌwʌn.   ˋðis iz ðə ˌwʌn.
 ˈðat s ðə ˈwʌn ai ˈsoː ˋjestədi.

With Article-Analogues.

 ˋaiðə ˌwʌn | ˌduː.   ai ˈwont ə ˋhoul wʌn.
 wi ˈspouk tu ˈiːtʃ ˌwʌn. ˈðat s ðə ˋseim wʌn.
 ˈmaːk ˋevri ˌwʌn, ˋnot ˌevri ˋʌðə ˌwʌn.

With Ordinals.

 ðə ˋfəːst wʌnz wə ðə ˌbest. ˈgiv mi ðə ˋsekənd wʌn.
 ˋai ˌlaik ðə ˈfoːθ ŋ ˋfifθ wʌnz.

With Adjectives.

 ˋðis iz ə ˌgud wʌn.   wi ˈwont sm̩ ˋbetə wʌnz.
 ðə ˈbig wʌn z ˈon ðə ˋteibl̩. ju v ˈbroːt ðə ˋroŋ wʌnz.
 ˈteik ə ˋlaːdʒ wʌn; ˋdount ˌteik ə ˌsmoːl wʌn.

With the Conjunctive and Interrogative witʃ.

 ai fəˋget ˌwitʃ wʌn ju ˌtʃouz. ˈaːsk im ˈwitʃ wʌnz i ˌwonts.
 ˈwitʃ wʌn d ju ˈlaik ˌbest? ˈwitʃ wʌnz əv ðei ˌteikən?

67 The compound semi-pronouns. The partitives sʌm, eni and nou are compounded with bodi, wʌn and θiŋ to form words which, being both noun-like and pronoun-like in function, are best placed

in the semi-pronoun class of determiners. They cannot be qualified by the qualifiers that precede the noun, but may be qualified by relative clauses, prepositional phrases and infinitives (§60) and by a few adverbs, notably els. The complete list of these semi-pronouns is:

Affirmative	ˈsʌmbodi	ˈsʌmwʌn	ˈsʌmθiŋ
Indefinite	ˈenibodi	ˈeniwʌn	ˈeniθiŋ
Negative	ˈnoubodi	ˈnouwʌn	ˈnʌθiŋ
Plenary	ˈevribodi	ˈevriwʌn	ˈevriθiŋ

The element **bodi** has an optional weak form **bədi** when used in these compounds.

Like the partitives (§§75–77) which enter into their construction, these semi-pronouns are subject to certain limitations in their use. Their effect on the structure of the sentence is dealt with in §§365–6.

All these semi-pronouns may form collocations with the adverb **els** to give the meaning ''——other person or thing,'' thus :

did ju 'miːt ˈeniwʌn ˈels ?   'sʌmbodi ˈels ˌtould mi ˌðat.
'nʌθiŋ ˈels wəz ˌmisiŋ.   'woznt ˈevribodi ˈels ˈʃokt ?

When these collocations are used in a possessive capacity they are generally treated as a unit, the possessive termination being added to **els**, thus :

'ðis iz ˈsʌmbodi ˈelsiz ˌhat.   'noubodi ˈelsiz ˌtiː wəz ˌspilt.
ˈeniwʌn ˌelsiz ˌpen ǀ ˌduː.   ai v ˈsiːn ˌevriwʌn ˌelsiz ˌwəːk.

THE PRONOUNS

68 Definition. These are words that are used instead of the noun that names a person or thing already identified. Traditional grammar usually recognizes Personal, Reflexive, Reciprocal, Possessive, Demonstrative, Relative and Interrogative Pronouns, but in a functional analysis the last two are regarded as Connectives, and are therefore described under that heading, while the Possessives and Demonstratives, being both adjectival and pronominal, have their own headings as determiners. Only the first two classes are dealt with under the present heading of Pronouns. For Reciprocal Pronouns see §95.

Most of the pronouns have weak forms, which are used when the

word is unstressed. In the following table the weak forms are
shown in brackets.

	Nominative	Oblique	Emphatic	Reflexive
Singular				
1*st pers.*	ai	miː (mi)	mai'self	miself
2*nd pers.*	juː (ju)[1]	juː (ju)	joː'self	jəself
3*rd pers.*				
masculine	hiː (hi, i)	him (him, im)	him'self	imself
feminine	ʃiː (ʃi)	həː* (hə*, əː*, ə*)	hə'self	əself
neuter	it[2]	it[2]	it'self	itself
indefinite	wʌn[2]	wʌn[2]	wʌn'self	wʌnself
Plural				
1*st pers.*	wiː (wi)	ʌs (əs)[3]	auə'selvz	auəselvz
2*nd pers.*	juː (ju)	juː (ju)	joː'selvz	jəselvz
3*rd pers.*	ðei[4]	ðem (ðəm, ðm̩)[5]	ðəm'selvz	ðm̩selvz

In an older stage of the language there were pronouns in general
use for the second person singular (ðau, ðiː) corresponding to the
"familiar" pronouns of many other languages. Except in one or
two very conservative dialects these words have now fallen com-
pletely out of use, and the second person plural pronoun (juː) is
used in addressing one person as well as more than one. Apart
from the essential distinction made between singular and plural in
the expanded pronouns (joːself—joːselvz), the pronoun juː is now
the only one used to refer to the person or persons addressed, and
students should note that as the pronoun is really a plural it is
always so treated grammatically. When, therefore, it is the subject
of a tense that has different finite forms for singular and plural
(§§130, 154) the plural form of the finite must always be used.

[1] The sequence juː aː is generally weakened to ju ə or joː ə, which latter
is homophonous with the possessive determiner joə (spelt "your"). To avoid
confusion this combination will be shown as ju ə.

[2] it rarely takes a kinetic tone; wʌn never does.

[3] Becomes s in the expression let s.

[4] The sequence ðei aː is generally weakened to ðe ə which is homophonous
with the possessive determiner ðeə (spelt "their") and the adverb ðeə (spelt
"there"). To avoid confusion this combination will be shown as ðei ə.

[5] In rapid and familiar speech əm.

69 Personal pronouns. Five of the personal pronouns and the interrogative and relative huː are the only words retaining different forms for the nominative and oblique cases ; juː, it and wʌn do not vary for case.

Nominative pronouns as subjects:

ˋai ˌsoː it. ai ˋsoː it. ai m ˅redi. ʃl ˊai ˈteik it? ʃl ai ˊteik it?
ˋjuː ˌwent ðeə. ju ˋwent ðeə. ju ˌsiː . . . ju ə ˋbizi. did ju ˊgou?
ˋhiː wəz ˌðeə. hi ˋwoz ðeə. if ˋhiː ˌkeim. if i ˅keim. did i ˊkʌm?
ˋʃiː ˌsed sou. ʃi ˋsed sou. wil ʃi ˊkʌm? iz ʃi ˊredi?
it s ˋhiə. it ˈluks laik ˋrein.
wʌn ˋofn̩ ˌdʌz ˌθiŋz laik ˌðat.
ˋwiː did it. wi ˅did it. wi ə ˅redi. ʃl ˊwiː gou? ʃl wi ˊgou?
ˋðei ˌsoː it. ðei ˅soː it. did ˊðei siː it? did ðei ˊsiː it?

Oblique pronouns as direct objects:

hi ˈsoː ˋmiː. ⌈hi ˋsoː mi. dəz i ˊwont mi? dəz i ˈwont ˊmiː?
ai ˈtould ˌjuː. ˈðat s wot ai ˋtould ju. ai ˋtould ju ˌsou.
ai ˈwont ˋhim. ai ˋwont im. did ju ˊsiː im?
ai ˈsoː ˅həː. ai ˋsoː əː. ai ˈsoː ər in ðə ˌstriːt. ˈtel ər ai ˌwont əː.
ðei ˅did it. ai l ˈduː it tə ˋmoru.
ˋðat soːt əv ˌθiŋ sə ˋpraiziz wʌn. it ˈmeiks wʌn ˋwʌndə.
hi ˈtould ˅ʌs. hi ˋtould əs. ˈlet s ˋgou.
ai ˈwontid ˋðem. ai ˋwontid ðəm. ai ˋwontid əm.

Oblique pronouns as indirect objects:

ˈgiv ˌmiː wʌn. ˈgiv mi ˌðat wʌn.
ai sent ˋjuː ˌðat wʌn. ai ˈsent ju ˋðat wʌn.
ai ˈʃoud ˋhim ðə ˌletə. ai ˋʃoud im ðə ˌletə.
ai ˈofəd ˋhəː ðə ˌmʌni. ai ˋofəd ə ðə ˌmʌni.
ai ˈθoːt ðə ˈdog wəz ˌhʌŋgri sou ai ˈgeiv it ˈsʌmθiŋ tu ˋiːt.
ðei ˌgiv wʌn ðə ˈbest əv ˋevriθiŋ.
hi ˈgeiv ˋʌs wʌn. hi ˋgeiv əs ˌwʌn.
wi ˈʃoud ˋðem ðə ˌpeipəz. wi ˋʃoud (ð)əm ðə ˌpeipəz.

Oblique pronouns as prepositional objects:

ˈgiv it tə ˌmiː. ˋgiv it ˌtu mi.
ai ˈboːt ˈðat fə ˋjuː. ai ˋboːt it ˌfoː ju.
ˈai lukt ət ˋhəː. ai ˋlukt at əː.
ai ˈgot ðə ˈletə frəm ˋhim. ai ˈgot ðə ˅letə ˈfrom im.

ai 'geiv 'ten ˋʃiliŋz fɔːr it.
ˋðat s ðə ˌsɔːt əv ˌθiŋ ðət 'nevər əˋkəːz tə wʌn.
hi wəz 'weitiŋ fər ˋʌs.   hi wəz ˋweitiŋ ˌfoːr əs.
it wəz 'veri ˙kaind əv ˋðem.   it wəz 'veri ˋkaind ˌov (ð)əm.

Pronouns as subject-complements.

In the case of the five pronouns still possessing different nomi-
native and oblique forms much divergency of opinion exists among
grammarians and others concerning which form should be used as
subject complement, and the unfortunate student, whichever form he
uses, will be corrected and warned against that particular "fault."
This difference of opinion frequently leads to angry disputation,
but the facts seem to be as follows:

In careful and deliberate speech, especially between strangers
and among women-folk, when one is on one's guard against possible
criticism from purists, the forms ai, hiː, ʃiː, wiː and ðei are generally
heard.   Those who have cultivated a bookish or formal style of
speaking almost invariably use these forms.

On the other hand, in the normal and spontaneous speech of
everyday life, especially between friends and in the conversation
of men-folk, the forms miː, him, həː, ʌs and ðem are usually heard,
as shown in the following examples:

it s ˋmiː.	ðei 'θoːt it wəz ˋmiː.
it s ˋhim.	it 'mait əv bin ˋhim.
it s ˋhəː.	ai ˋtould ju it wəz ˌhəː.
it s ˋʌs.	wi ˋnjuː it əd bi ˌʌs.
it s ˋðem.	ðei ə ˋʃoər it ‖ bi ˌðem.

When pronouns occur in isolation the oblique forms are similarly
used:

'huː z ˋðeə? — ˋmiː.   'huː ˋwoz it? — ˋðem.

It may therefore be stated as a general rule that in natural
speech the nominative form is used only when the pronoun is the
subject of a verb, and that the oblique form is used in all other cases.

70 Expanded pronouns.   These are made by adding -self in the
singular and -selvz in the plural to the adjectival possessives of
the 1st and 2nd persons (see §71) and to the oblique pronouns of the
3rd person.   They are stressed when emphatic and unstressed when
reflexive.

Examples:

Emphatic pronouns:

    ai 'soː it mai`self.
    'juː joː`self ˌtould mi sou.
    hi 'didn̩t ˙kʌm him`self.
    'wai ˙dʌzn̩t ʃi 'duː it hə`self?
    ðə 'buk it`self ˌgivz ðə ˌfigəz.
    wʌn ʃəd bi 'eibl̩ tə ˙duː ðis wʌn`self.
    wi 'beik auə ˙bred auə`selvz.
    ju məs 'gou joː`selvz.
    'ðei ðəm`selvz diˌsaidid tə ˌliːv.

Reflexive pronouns:

    ai v 'dʒʌs `kʌt miself.
    'hav ju ´həːt jəself?
    hi z `weiiŋ imself.
    ʃi 'dʌzn̩ ˙giv əself ə `tʃaːns.
    ðə 'faiə z ˙bəːnt itself `aut.
    wʌn məs bi`heiv wʌnself ˌhiə.
    wi in`dʒoid auəselvz ət ðə ˌpaːti.
    `pliːz ˌmeik jəselvz ət ˌhoum.
    ðei 'praid ðm̩selvz on ðeə 'nolidʒ əv `kukiŋ.

These expanded forms may be reflexive and emphatic at the same time. In such cases they are stressed:

    ai `nevə ˌʃeiv mai‿self.
    did ´juː ˙kʌt əː, oː did ʃi 'kʌt hə´self?
    wʌn 'mʌsn̩ ˙preiz wʌn‿self.
    'didn̩t ðə ˙tʃildrən 'woʃ ðəm´selvz?
    (*Compare*: 'didn̩t ðə ˙tʃildrən ´woʃ ðm̩selvz?)

When they follow bai or oːl bai these words may be said to have an isolating function:

    hi 'did it bai im`self.   ə ju 'oːl bai jə´self?

THE POSSESSIVES

71 Description. These are words that may serve as answers to the question huːz? They have different forms according to the

number (and in the 3rd person singular the gender) of the possessor, not of the person or object possessed.

Except in the 3rd person singular masculine they have different forms for adjectival and pronominal use; these are generally referred to as "possessive adjectives" and "possessive pronouns" respectively.

There are also emphatic possessives, which are made by adding **oun** to the adjectival forms. These may be used either adjectivally or pronominally.

Some of the adjectival possessives have weak forms, and these may be used in the emphatic compounds. In the following table the weak forms are shown in brackets.

	Adjectival	*Pronominal*	*Emphatic*
Singular			
1st *pers.*	mai (mi)	main	mai ˋoun
2nd *pers.*	joə* (jə*)	joəz	joər ˋoun
3rd *pers.*			
masculine	hiz (iz)	hiz	hiz ˋoun
feminine	həː* (hə*, əː*)	həːz	hər ˋoun
neuter	its	—	its ˋoun
indefinite	wʌnz	—	wʌnz ˋoun
Plural			
1st *pers.*	auə*	auəz	auər ˋoun
2nd *pers.*	joə* (jə*)	joəz	joər ˋoun
3rd *pers.*	ðeə*	ðeəz	ðeər ˋoun

Examples:

ðis iz ˋmai buk; it s mai ˋoun buk. ˌðat s ˋmain; it s mai ˋoun.

'weə z joə ˋpen? 'iz it joər ˋoun pen? iz 'ðat ˊjoəz? 'iz it jər ˋoun?

iz iz ˊneim ðeə? iz 'ðat iz ˊoun aiˈdiə? 'weə z ˋhiz? 'wai didņt i ˈteik iz ˋoun?

'hiə z əː ˌhat; ai �ˊθink it s ˌhəːz. it 'mʌs bi hər ˋoun.

it s əˋnoiiŋ tə ˌluːz wʌnz ˌglaːsiz. wʌnz 'oun wei z ˅best.

ˋðiːz ər auə ˌnouts; wi 'meid auər ˋoun; ðei ər ˋauəz.

ˋðeər ə ˌðeə buks. ðei 'briŋ ðeər ˌoun. ˋðiːz ə ˌðeəz.

THE DEMONSTRATIVES

72 Forms and functions. Demonstratives are used to indicate persons or things by suggesting their proximity to or remoteness from the speaker. They may be used either adjectivally or pronominally. They are invariable for gender but have different forms for singular and plural. They are nearly always stressed and have no weak forms.

Singular	*Plural*	
ðis	ðiːz	specifying the less remote.
ðat	ðouz	specifying the more remote.

The following examples show the differences in reference:

ˈðis aiˌdiə z ˌgud   (the one I'm speaking about now).
ˈðat aiˌdiə z ˌgud   (a previous one, or somebody else's).
ˈðiːz ˈbuks ə ˈmain   (the ones near me).
ˈðouz ˈbuks ə ˈjoəz   (the ones not so near me).

Examples of adjectival use:

ˈtrai ˈðis ˈbred ən ˈðat ˌdʒam.
ˈðiːz ˈteiblz ə ˈlaːdʒə ðən ˈðouz ˌdesks.

Examples of pronominal use:

ˈwot s ˌðis?   ˈðis iz ə ˌbuk.   ai l ˈteik ˈðis.
ˈwot s ˌðat?   ˈðat s ə ˌpen.   ai l ˈteik ˈðat.
ˈwot ə ˌðiːz?   ˈðiːz ə ˌbuks.   ai l ˈteik ˈðiːz.
ˈwot ə ˌðouz?   ˈðouz ə ˌpenz.   ai l ˈteik ˈðouz.

The singular forms are used in combination with the semi-pronoun wʌn. (See §66.)

ˈðis wʌn z ˈjoəz; ai l ˈteik ˈðat wʌn.
ˈðat wʌn z ˈmain: ˈteik ˈðis wʌn.

The plural forms do not usually enter into this combination.

THE ARTICLES

73 Forms of the articles. There are two articles, the definite and the indefinite, which are invariable for number and gender and which are never used pronominally. Both articles have strong and

weak forms, the latter being used almost exclusively, as the articles are nearly always unstressed. The various forms are:

| | Normal Form | | Pre-Vocalic Form | |
	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong
Definite Article	ðə	ðiː	ði	ðiː
Indefinite Article	ə	ei	ən	an

The strong forms are used only when the articles are isolated (*a*) or stressed (*b*); in all other cases the weak forms are used (*c*).

The definite article:

a. wi ə 'gouiŋ tə ˈtoːk əbaut ðə 'definit ˈaːtikl̩ "ˌðiː."

b. ai 'didn̩t sei "ˌmai" buk; ai sed "ˋðiː" buk.

c. ðə ˋman, ðə ˋgəːl, ðə ˋbuk, ðə ˋmen, ðə ˋgəːlz, ðə ˋbuks.
ði ˋaːnt, ði ˋʌŋkl̩, ði aiˋdiə, ði ˋaːnts, ði ˋʌŋklz, ði aiˋdiəz.

The indefinite article:

a. ði in'definit ˈaːtikl̩ iz "ˌei" oːr "ˋan."

b. ai 'woznt ˈspiːkiŋ əv ˋmai ˌtʃeə, ənd əv ˋmai ˌaːmˌtʃeə; ai wəz spiːkiŋ əv ˋei ˌtʃeə, ənd əv ˋan ˌaːmˌtʃeə.

c. ə ˋman, ə ˋgəːl, ə ˋbuk, ən ˋaːnt, ən ˋʌŋkl̩, ən aiˋdiə.

When used with plural nouns and uncountables the indefinite article is alogistic, i.e. is not represented by any word.

ˋmen, ˋgəːlz, ˋbuks; ˋwoːtə, ˋsand, ˋhapinis.

The indefinite article is not used pronominally, but is replaced by wʌn, sʌm or eni.

'did ju ˈsiː ə ˈbuk? ˋjes, ai ˋdid ˌsiː wʌn.
iz 'ðat ˈwoːtə? if ˌsou, ai ˋwont sʌm, ai 'dount ˋwont eni.
ə 'ðouz ˈmatʃiz? if ˌsou, ai ˋwont sʌm, ai 'dount ˋwont eni.

74 Use of the articles. To many foreign students the distinctions made between the definite and indefinite articles are exceedingly difficult to grasp. Indeed, in many cases such distinctions can hardly be formulated at all, and the English usage can be acquired only by dint of continual observation and imitation. The following rule is given in Sweet's *New English Grammar.*

"The Definite Article is put before a noun to show that the idea expressed by the noun has already been stated, and to refer back

to that statement. If, on the other hand, the idea is new, the noun expressing it is accompanied by the indefinite article."

The following examples may help to make this clear:

'niə mai ˌhaus ju l siː ə ˌtʃəːtʃ ənd ə ˅faktəri. ðə ˅tʃəːtʃ iz 'veri ˌould ənd 'veri piktʃəˌresk, weəraz ðə ˅faktəri iz 'veri ˌnjuː ənd 'veri ˌʌgli.

The use of the definite article in the second of these sentences shows that we are referring to a particular house and to a particular factory, which were identified in the first sentence. If the indefinite article were used in the second sentence it would imply that churches in general are old and picturesque, and that factories in general are new and ugly.

Another frequent use of the definite article is the following:

˅ðis iz ˌmai rum; 'not ə veri ˅kʌmfətəbl ˌrum; ðə 'siːliŋ z ˌlou, ðə 'windou z tuː ˌsmoːl, ən ðə 'doə dʌznt ˅ʃʌt ˌpropəli.

Here the definite article shows that we are referring to the ceiling, the window and the door *belonging to the room in question*.

When we say ðə ˅faiəz ˌaut we mean "the fire belonging to this room" or "the only fire in the house."

When we say 'let s ˙gou əz 'faːr əz ðə ˌbridʒ we mean "the bridge which is near here," or "the only bridge in this particular neighbourhood," or "the bridge that we both know of."

Sometimes the definite article "makes the noun into what is practically a proper name" (Sweet):

ðə juː'naitid ˌsteits, ðə 'hauziz əv ˌpaːləmənt.

Again according to Sweet, "the indefinite article has two distinct functions: the introductory article singles out the idea expressed by the noun, and makes us expect further information about it."

wi 'went ˙on til wi 'keim tu ə ˌbridʒ.

"The absolute article does not single out, and has the purely indefinite sense of eni . . . it simply picks out an individual at random to serve as the representative of a class":

ə 'hoːs iz ən ˌaniml.

THE PARTITIVES

75 The affirmative partitive. This has three forms, sʌm, səm, sm̩.

The *weak* form səm or sm̩, when used with uncountables and plural nouns, is intermediate between the article-like determiners and the quantitatives or numericals. It is *article-like* in that it closely corresponds in function to the indefinite article, but *quantitative* in that it is almost synonymous with ə ˈlɪt|, and *numerical* in that it is almost synonymous with ə ˈfjuː.

> ai ˌtuk ə ˌbuk, ə ˌpen, səm (= ə ˈlɪt|) ˌiŋk ən səm (= ə ˅fjuː) ˈʃiːts əv ˌpeipə.

Before plural countables the weak form serves as a plural of the indefinite article:

ðəz ə ˈrok ˌhiə.	ðər ə sm̩ ˈroks ˌhiə.
ə ˈsoŋ wəz ˌsʌŋ.	sm̩ ˈsoŋz wə ˌsʌŋ.
ai ʃ| ˈniːd ə ˅pin.	ai ʃ| ˈniːd sm̩ ˅pinz.

The indefinite article cannot, of course, be dispensed with in such cases, but sm̩ may be omitted to give the plural sentences a more formal, impersonal, objective or detached feeling.

> ðər ə ˈroks hiə.   ˈsoŋz wə ˌsʌŋ.   ai ʃ| ˈniːd ˅pinz.

Before uncountables the weak form is a true partitive:

> ðei ˈwont sm̩ ˌpeipə.   wi ˌtuk sm̩ ˈtiː ən sm̩ ˌkofi.

When this partitive is pronominal the strong form is used, even in unstressed positions:

> ai ˈwont səm ˌpeipə; ai səpouz ˈjuː ˌwont sʌm ˈtuː
>
> ai ˈtuk səm ˌbuks; ai θɔːt ˈjuː ˌtuk sʌm ˈtuː.

The *strong* form sʌm when used with or standing for uncountables and plural nouns means ˈnot ˈoːl, ə ˈpaːt. It may be used either adjectivally or pronominally:

> ˈnot ˈoːl ˌglaːs iz transˌpeərənt; ˈsʌm ˌiz ən ˈsʌm ˈizn̩t.
>
> ˌsʌm piːp| ˈlaik ˌðat soːt əv θiŋ; ˌsʌm ˈdount.

When a stressed sʌm is used with singular countables, it may be considered as an emphasized variety of the indefinite article, often having a more or less disparaging sense.

ʃi woz 'tɔːkiŋ tə 'sʌm ˌman (ai 'dount ˙nou wot ⱽsɔːt əv ˙man, 'prɒbəbli 'noubədi ˙veri imⱽpɔːtn̩t).

hi z 'raitiŋ 'sʌm ˌbuk (='sʌm ˎbuk ər ʌðə, ai 'dount ˙nou wot it s əˎbaut, ɔː 'weðər it s eni ˎgud).

This variety of sʌm has no weak form and is never used pronominally.

76 The indefinite partitive. In interrogative, negative, conditional, hypothetical, and dubitative sentences, **sʌm, səm** is generally replaced by unemphatic **eni** occasionally weakened to n̩i, especially after **t** or **d**.

	With Uncountables	*With Plural Nouns*
Interrogative	did ju 'siː eni ′iŋk ðeə?	did ju 'siː eni ′buks ðeə?
Negative	ai didn̩t ˙siː eni ˎiŋk ðeə.	ai 'didn̩t ˙siː eni ˎbuks ðeə.
Conditional	if ju 'siː eni ⱽiŋk ðeə . . .	if ju 'siː eni ⱽbuks ðeə . . .
Hypothetical	if ju 'sɔː eni ⱽiŋk ðeə . . .	if ju 'sɔː eni ⱽbuks ðeə . . .
Dubitative	ai 'wʌndə weðə ðə z eni ˎiŋk ðeə.	ai 'wʌndə weðə ðər ər eni ˎbuks ðeə.

Pronominal use:

ˎgiv mi ˌwʌn! bət ai ˌhavn̩t ˙got eni tə ˎgiv ju.

həv juː ′got eni? ˎnou, ai 'havn̩t ˌgot eni.

When eni is used in affirmative constructions it is stressed, and is then equivalent to 'nou matə ˌwot kaind əv.

" 'θiŋk əv ə ˌwəːd!" — "'wot ˌkaind əv ˌwəːd?" — "it 'dʌzn̩t ˙matə wot ˌkaind əv ˌwəːd; ˎeni ˌwəːd."

ˎeni bed z ˌbetə ðən ˎnou bed.

ˎeni fuːl kən duː ˌðat!

it ˎdʌzn̩t ˌmatə wot ˌsɔːt əv ˙iŋk ju ˙du it wið; ˎeni ˌiŋk | ˌduː (= ˎeni ˌkaind əv ˌiŋk).

ai 'wont səm ˌtʃeəz." — "'wot ˌsɔːt əv ˌtʃeəz?" — "it ˌdʌzn̩t ˎmatə; ˎeni ˌtʃeəz | ˌduː əz ˌloŋ əz ðei ə ˌstroŋ."

Pronominal use:

ⱽðis wʌn z 'betə ðən 'eni ai v ˙evə ˌsiːn.

"d ju ˌwont ′laːdʒ wʌnz ɔː ˌsmɔːl wʌnz?" — "ðə 'saiz ˙dʌzn̩t ˌmatə, ˎeni | ˌduː."

77 The negative partitive. In this the adjectival form is nou, and the pronominal form nʌn. It is partly *article-like* and partly *quantitative-numerical*, in that it constitutes the negative of the indefinite article and partitive as well as of quantitatives and numericals. For the reason given in §366, it probably occurs most frequently after precursory ðeə* (§231):

ðər 'izn̩t eni ˎtaim.　　　　ðə z 'nou ˎtaim.

ðər 'aːnt eni ˎbuks.　　　　ðər ə 'nou ˎbuks.

ðə 'wozn̩t eni ˎðeə.　　　　ðə wəz 'nʌn ˎðeə.

It is also widely used in the subject position:

'nou ˙njuːz iz ˎgud ˌnjuːz.　　ˋnʌn əv ju məst ˌliːv ˌjet.

'nou 'taim məs bi ˌlost.　　　'nʌn wə tə bi ˌfaund.

Some speakers favour its use in the present and past tenses of the verb tə hav, in order to avoid the anomalous negative structure referred to in §156C:

ðei ˌhad 'nʌn ˌleft.　　　　wi ˌhav 'nou ˋmʌni wið əs.

In other cases nou and nʌn are replaced by ə or eni in conjunction with a negative finite:

ai 'ʃaːnt ˙hav ə ˋtikit.　　　ju 'didn̩t ˙send mi ən ˋaːnsə.

it 'wudn̩t ˙meik eni ᵛdifrn̩s. wi 'havn̩t ˋteikən eni ˌjet.

In referring to singular countables, pronominal nʌn may be replaced by wʌn in conjunction with a negative finite:

'iz ðər ə ˊkiː?　　　　　　ˋnou, ðər ˋizn̩t wʌn.

With uncountables and plural countables eni replaces wʌn.

'iz ðər eni ˊwoːtə?
{
ˋnou, ðə z 'nʌn ᵛhiə.
ˋnou, ðər 'izn̩t eni ᵛhiə.
}

'aː ðər eni ˊbuks?
{
ˋnou, ðər ə ˋnʌn ˌhiə.
ˋnou, ðər 'aːnt eni ˌhiə.
}

In classical English the word nʌn (= *none*) is considered to be the equivalent of **not wʌn** (= *not one*), and is therefore held to be singular even when it refers to plural countables. In spoken English it is more often used as a plural in such cases.

Sing. 'nʌn wəz ˌðeə.　　　*Plur.* 'nʌn wə ˌðeə.

78   Table of demonstratives, articles and partitives.   The following table gives an analysis of the ways in which these three types of determiner are used, with particular reference to the type of noun they precede when used adjectivally. The demonstratives and partitives are also used pronominally with similar references.

	Used with Singular *Countables*	Used with Singular *Uncountables*	Used with Plural nouns
Demonstratives	ðis ðat	ðis ðat	ðiːz ðouz
Definite Article	ðə, ði	ðə, ði	ðə, ði
Indefinite Article	ə, ən	(*alogistic*)[1]	(*alogistic*)[1]
Emphatic Article	sʌm (§75)	(*not used*)	(*not used*)
Affirmative Partitive	(*not used*)	səm, sʌm	səm, sʌm
Indefinite Partitive	(*not used*)	eni	eni
Negative Partitives	nou not ə, not ən	nou not eni	nou not eni

[1] *Note.*—Foreign students, especially those to whom the study of the article is difficult, should distinguish between those cases in which the alogistic indefinite article is used, and those cases in which no article (alogistic, or other) is used at all.

In the sentence ai ˈlaik ˌtʃiːz the word tʃiːz is modified by the alogistic article, and means "cheese, in general."

In the sentence ai ˈlaik ˌlʌndən the word lʌndən is not modified (nor is it modifiable) by any article whatever.

THE ARTICLE-ANALOGUES

79 Definition. This class, which comprises a group of words similar in function to the demonstratives, articles and partitives, comprises the following determiners:

bouθ, aiðə*, naiðə* (denoting duality);
houl, oːl, iːtʃ, evri (denoting totality);
veəriəs, veri, səːtn̩, sʌtʃ, seim, ʌðə* (denoting selection).

Some of them are modified or modifiable by the articles.

80 Determiners denoting duality.

bouθ is used only before plural nouns and precedes any other determiners. It has nearly the same meaning as ðə tuː.

Adjectival:

ˋbouθ buks ə ˌhiə.   ˋbouθ mai ˌbuks ə ˌhiə.
ˋbouθ ðə buks ə ˌhiə.   ˋbouθ ðouz ˌbuks ə ˌhiə.
ðei ə ˋnot ˏbouθ ˏded (= ˋwʌn əv ðəm z ˏded; ði ˈʌðər ˋizn̩t).

Pronominal:

ðər ə ˈtuː ˏbuks, ənd ˈbouθ ə ˌhiə.
ðə wə ˈtuː ˏbuks, ənd ai ˈtuk ˏbouθ.

aiðə* is used only before singular countables and has the same meaning as ˈwʌn oː ði ˏʌðə*.

Adjectival:

ˋaiðə ˌmeθəd z ˏgud.   ai ˈdount laik ˋaiðə ˌmeθəd.
ju kən teik ˋaiðə ˌbuk; ai ˈdount ˋmaind ˏwitʃ.

Pronominal:

ˈhiər ə ˈtuː ˏbuks; ju kən ˈteik ˋaiðə.
ˈhiər ə ˈtuː ˏfoːmz; ˋaiðər | ˏduː.   ai ˈdount laik ˋaiðə.

naiðə* is used only before singular countables, and is not used with any other determiner. It has nearly the same meaning as ˈnot ˏðis ənd ˈnot ði ˏʌðə.

Adjectival:

ˋnaiðə ˌmeθəd z ˌgud.

When used as an object (direct or indirect) naiðə* is generally replaced by a negative finite and aiðə.

ai soː ˋnaiðə buk = ai 'didn̩t siː ˋaiðə buk.

Pronominal:

'witʃ əv ðə 'tuː d ju ˏlaik? ai laik ˋnaiðə (*or* ai 'dount laik ˋaiðə).
ai 'traid ˋbouθ ˌmeθədz, bət ˋnaiðə wəz[1] satisˏfaktəri.

In the dialect with which this book deals, the semi-pronoun wʌn is never used after the three determiners denoting duality.

81   Determiners denoting totality.

houl is always used with singular countables and must be preceded by a possessive, a demonstrative or an article.   It is synonymous with inˋtaiə*.

Adjectival:

mai 'houl ˏlaif wəz ˌspoilt. ðis 'houl 'peidz iz ˏroŋ.
ðə 'houl ˏprougram ʃəd bi ˌtʃeindʒd. ə 'houl ˋdei wəz ˌweistid.

Pronominal:

This use is formal and comparatively rare.

ə ˯houl z 'oːlwiz ˙laːdʒə ðən ˙wʌn əv its ˏpaːts.

houl used as subject-complement has a different meaning and is then an adjective synonymous with kəmˋpliːt.

it wəz 'houl wen wi ˯boːt it (it 'must have been ˙broken ˋsince).

oːl is rarely or never used before a countable, but is replaced by ðə houl.

Adjectival:

oːl θiŋz and oːl ðə θiŋz are generally replaced by the semi-pronoun ˋevriθiŋ.

oːl pipl̩ and oːl ðə piːpl̩ are generally replaced by the semi-pronouns ˋevribodi or ˋevriwʌn.

oːl pleisiz and oːl ðə pleisiz are generally replaced by the adverb evriweə*.

---

[1] wəz is sometimes replaced by wə*, though not by careful speakers.

Pronominal:

This use is rare, except as an antecedent to relative clauses introduced by ðət or hu.

'oːl hu ˈkeim wə ˈgriːtid iˈfjuːsivli.
wi ˌhav 'oːl (ðət) wi ˌwont.

A common mistake made by foreign students is to say oːl wot instead of simply oːl or oːl ðət.

This word has many grammatical functions. Sometimes it has the nature of an adverb rather than a determiner.

iːtʃ is similar in meaning to ˈevri. ai ˌtould 'evri ˈmembə tə ˌkʌm, however, may imply that the members were told in a body, whereas ai ˌtould 'iːtʃ ˈmembə tə ˌkʌm implies that a separate communication was made to the members individually.

Adjectival:

iːtʃ is never used with the articles. When unaccompanied by cardinal numbers it is used only with singular countables.

'iːtʃ 'membə 'broːt iz ˈkontriˌbjuːʃn̩.
ai ˌspouk tu 'iːtʃ ˈpəːsn̩ ˌsepəritli.

Pronominal:

iːtʃ is used as a pronoun either alone or in the collocation 'iːtʃ ˈwʌn.

ai ˌgeiv 'tuː tu ˌiːtʃ (*or* tu 'iːtʃ ˌwʌn).
'iːtʃ (wʌn) ˈkeim ət ə 'difrənt ˌtaim.

evri is never used with the articles. When unaccompanied by cardinal numbers it is used only with singular countables.

Adjectival:

'evri ˈmembə wəz ˌpreznt̩ = 'oːl ðə ˈmembəz wə ˌpreznt̩.
ai ˌlukt ət 'evri ˈrum in ðə ˌhaus = 'oːl ðə ˈrumz in ðə ˌhaus.

Pronominal:

evri itself is not used as a pronoun, but may be followed by the semi-pronoun wʌn, the two words constituting a compound (or group-) pronoun.

ˌevri ˎwʌn wəz ˌðeə (= ˌevri ˌpəːsn̩ or ˈevri ˎobdʒikt wəz ˌðeə).

ai ˌlukt ət ˈevri ˎwʌn (= ai ˌlukt ət ˈevri ˌpəːsn̩ or ˈevri ˎobdʒikt).

The collocation ˈevri ˋwʌn is distinct from the semi-pronoun ˋevriwʌn (meaning ˋevribodi or ˋevri pəːsn̩).

For collocations of evri *see* §97.

82   Determiners denoting selection.

veəriəs is always used with plural nouns, generally in the indefinite sense, but occasionally with the definite article.

Adjectival:

ai soː im on ˋveəriəs əˌkeiʒn̩z.   ˋveəriəs ˌkaindz əˌkəː.

Preceded by the definite article:

ðə ˈveəriəs əˎkeiʒn̩z on witʃ ai v ˎsiːn im.

Pronominal:

veəriəs is occasionally used pronominally.

it s ˈsʌmtaimz kənˈviːnjənt tə diˈvaid ˈwəːdz intə ˈfoː ˎklaːsiz: ˌnaunz, ˌvəːbz, ˌadʒiktivz, ənd ˋveəriəs.

It may also be used with wʌnz.

wi ˈtraid ˋveəriəs wʌnz bət ˈnʌn əv ðəm wə ˎsjuːtəbl̩.

The determiner ˌmisəˋleiniəs is a frequently-used synonym of ˋveəriəs.

veri as a determiner is preceded by the definite article and has the sense of igˋzakt.   It is not used predicatively.

Adjectival:

ju ə ðə ˈveri ˈman ai ˈwontid tə ˎsiː.   in ðə ˈveri ˎmidl̩.

Pronominal:

veri may be compounded with wʌn, and so form a pronoun: ðis iz ðə ˈveri ˎwʌn.

səːtn̩ is preceded by the indefinite article (expressed or alogistic), of which it is generally an intensified equivalent; it is used only with singular countables and plural nouns.

Adjectival:

ai 'koːld iz ə'tenʃn̩ tu ə 'səːtn̩ ˌpasidʒ (= tə 'wʌn pə'tikjulə ˌpasidʒ).

'səːtn̩ (= 'sʌm, ə 'fjuː) ˙θiŋz 'strʌk mi əz ˌkjuəriəs.

ðər ə 'səːtn̩ (= 'sʌm, ə 'fjuː) ikˌsepʃn̩z tə ˌðis ˌruːl.

The determiner səːtn̩ is indistinguishable from the adjective səːtn̩ except by context or by stress. Thus:

ə 'səːtn̩ ˌman = a man, one man.

ə ˋsəːtn̩ ˌman = a man who is certain.

ə 'səːtn̩ ˌθiŋ = a thing, one thing.

ə ˋsəːtn̩ ˌθiŋ = a certainty.

Pronominal:

səːtn̩ is used pronominally only when combined with the semi-pronoun wʌn, wʌnz, but this is rare.

ə 'səːtn̩ ˙wʌn ə'traktid mai əˌtenʃn̩.

'səːtn̩ ˙wʌnz 'strʌk mi əz ˌkjuəriəs.

sʌtʃ implies a comparison between two things, the second of which may be left unexpressed or else introduced by the particle əz. See also §326.

Adjectival:

sʌtʃ is always followed by the indefinite article when used with a countable in the singular.

ai v 'nevə ˌhəːd əv sʌtʃ ə ˌkeis (əz ˌðis).

it ud əv bin ə ˋpiti tə ˌmis sətʃ ən ˌopəˌtjuːniti (əz ˌðis).

ai 'nevə ˌhəːd sʌtʃ ˌnonsəns (əz ˌðis).

ˌai dcount ˙θiŋk sətʃ ˙θiŋz (əz ˙ðis) igˌzist.

in 'sʌtʃ 'laŋgwidʒiz əz ˇiŋgliʃ. . . .

Pronominal:

sʌtʃ is occasionally used as a pronoun, either alone or compounded with the semi-pronoun wʌn.

ai v 'nevə ˋhəːd əv sətʃ ə ˌwʌn (əz ju ˌmenʃn̩).

ai 'kaːnt ək˙sept sətʃ ˙wʌnz əz ˇðiːz.

in ˋsʌm ˌlaŋgwidʒiz, sʌtʃ əz ˌiŋgliʃ. . . .

ðei ə sʌtʃ ˌdifik|t wʌnz.   it s sʌtʃ ə ˌgud wʌn.

In the last two examples sʌtʃ is practically indistinguishable from an adverb of degree (i.e. the modifier of an adjective).

ðə seim implies "not different from the one we have in mind." It is invariably associated with the definite article.

Adjectival:

   it s ðə 'seim ˌbuk.   it 'izn̩t ðə ˙seim ˌθiŋ.
   it s ðə 'seim ˌsand.   it 'izn̩t ðə ˙seim ˌstʌf.
   ðei ə ðə 'seim ˌbuks.   ðei ə 'not ðə ˙seim ˌneimz.

Pronominal:

   'ðis iz ðə ˋseim, *or* 'ðis iz ðə 'seim ˌwʌn.
   'ðiːz ə ðə ˋseim, *or* 'ðiːz ə ðə 'seim ˌwʌnz.

ʌðə* means "not the one we have in mind."   It may be preceded by either article, as shown in the following table.   The singular indefinite article combines with it.   When used pronominally, ʌðə has a plural form:

		Indefinite	*Definite*
Singular		əˋnʌðə	ði ˋʌðə
Plural {	Adjectival	ˋʌðə	ði ˋʌðə
	Pronominal	(sm̩) ˋʌðəz	ði ˋʌðəz

All the singular forms may be combined with the semi-pronoun wʌn or with the numericals.

   'hiər ə ˙tuː ˌbuks; 'ðis wʌn z ˌmain, ði 'ʌðə z ˌjoəz.
   'hiə z əˋnʌðə (buk). ai 'dount nou ˋhuːz it ˌiz.
   if ju ˌdount laik ˌðis wʌn, teik əˋnʌðə (wʌn) (= ə ˋdifrn̩t wʌn).
   if 'wʌn izn̩t ˌinʌf, teik əˋnʌðə (wʌn) (= ən ˋekstrə wʌn).
   'hiər ə 'siks ˌbuks; 'ðiːz tuː ə ˌmain; ði ˌˌʌðəz (*or* ði ˌˌʌðə wʌnz)
     (*or* ði ˌˌʌðə foər) ə ˋjoəz.
   'sʌm əv ðiːz ˙piːpl̩ ˙kʌm frəm ˌfraːns; 'ʌðəz frəm ˌitəli, 'ʌðəz
     frəm ˋspein.

The expression ʌðə wʌnz is rarely used.

When ʌðə* is used with uncountables it implies "kind of."

   'wud ju priˋfəː ði ˊʌðə (˙kaind əv) ˙dʒam?
   'eni ˌʌðə (ˌkaind əv) ˌbʌtə wəd ˌduː.

For the collocations of ʌðə* see §§95, 97 and 98.

THE QUANTITATIVES

83 Function of the quantitatives. These are words or group-words that may serve as an answer to the question 'hau ˋmʌtʃ? They can refer only to uncountables, and may be used either adjectivally or pronominally.

> ai ˈwont ə litḷ ˏmʌni. ai ˋhav ə ˌlitḷ.

They form two groups:

(*a*) Those that do not add ov when used adjectivally:

> ˈmoə ˋmʌni. ðə ˈslaitist ˋtʃaːns.

(*b*) Those that add ov[1] when used adjectivally:

> ˈplenti əv ˋmʌni. ə ˈglaːs əv ˋwoːtə.

84 Quantitatives not adding ov. In the following general list nou is adjectival and nʌn pronominal; all the other quantitatives may be used in either capacity.

oːl	ˈmʌtʃ ˋmoə*	ðə ˋmoust
ˈnot ˋoːl	moə*	ˈtuː ˋmʌtʃ
mʌtʃ	sm̩ (eni) ˋmoə*	iˋnʌf
sʌm, sm̩	ə ˈlitḷ ˋmoə*	ˈtuː ˋlitḷ
eni	ə ˈlitḷ ˋles	ə ˋlitḷ
nou	les	ðə ˋliːst
nʌn	ˈmʌtʃ ˋles	ðə ˋslaitist

Examples:

Adjectival	*Pronominal*
ˈnot ˋoːl ˏglaːs iz ˏtransˏpeərənt.	wi ˋoːl ˏwont tə ˏgou.
ai ˈwont səm ˏmʌni	ai ˋwont ˏsʌm.
həv ju ˈgot eni ˊiŋk?	həv juː ˊgot eni?
ðə z ˈnou ˏbʌtə ˏleft.	ðəz ˈnʌn ˏleft.
ˈad ə litḷ ˏwoːtə tu it.	ˋad ə ˏlitḷ.
ˈðat ǀ ˈmeik ˈles ˏtrʌbḷ.	ˈðat ǀ ˈmeik ˋles.
wiðˏaut ðə ˈliːst ˏdifikḷti.	ˊjuː v got ðə ˏmoust.
wiðˏaut ðə ˈslaitist ˏdifikḷti.	ˈai v got ðə ˋliːst.
ˈdount ˈput in ˈtuː mʌtʃ ˅ˏwoːtə.	ˈdount ˈput in ˈtuː ˅mʌtʃ.
ˈwai dount ju ˈad moə ˏwoːtə?	ˈwai dount ju ˈad ˏmoə.
ˈhuː z ˈgot ðə ˈmoust ˏmʌni?	ˈhuː z ˈgot ðə ˏmoust?

[1] Always in its weak form əv.

ai 'wont səm ˙moə ʃugə. | ai 'wont səm ˌmoə.
həv ju 'got iˈnʌf ˊmilk? | həv ju 'got iˊnʌf?
ðə z 'nou moə ˙tiː ˌleft. | ðə z 'nou moə ˌleft.
'put ə ˙litǀ moə ˌsoːlt in it. | 'put ə litǀ ˌmoər in it.
ðə z 'mʌtʃ moə ˙wəːk ðən ju ˌθiŋk.| ðə z 'mʌtʃ 'moə ðən ju ˌθiŋk.

85 Quantitatives adding ov. These are generally used adjectivally, but may be used pronominally by omitting the **ov**, or by adding **it** after the **ov**.

Indicating degree of quantity

Adjectival	*Pronominal*
ə ˋlot əv, ˋlots əv,	ə ˋlot.
ə ˋkwontiti əv, ˋkwontitiz əv,	ə ˋkwontiti, ˋkwontitiz.
ə 'smoːl ˋkwontiti əv,	ə 'smoːl ˋkwontiti.
ə 'gud ˋdiːl əv,	ə 'gud ˋdiːl.
ə 'greit ˋdiːl əv,	ə 'greit ˋdiːl.
ə 'laːdʒ əˋmaunt əv,	ə 'laːdʒ əˋmaunt.
ə 'smoːl əˋmaunt əv,	ə 'smoːl əˋmaunt.
ˋplenti əv.	ˋplenti.

Examples:

hi 'mʌst hav ə ˙lot əv ᵛmʌni.	hi 'mʌst hav ə ᵛlot.
ðə wə 'greit ˙kwontitiz əv ˌsand.	ðə wə 'greit ˌkwontitiz.
it teiks ə 'greit diːl əv �ᵥtaim.	it teiks ə 'greit ˌᵥdiːl.
ðə z ˌplenti əv ˌwoːtə.	ðə z ˌplenti.

Weights and Measures

Adjectival	*Pronominal*
ən ˋauns əv, 'tuː ˋaunsiz əv.	ən ˋauns, 'tuː ˋaunsiz.
ə ˋpaund əv, 'θriː ˋpaundz əv,	ə ˋpaund, 'tuː ˋpaundz.
ə ˋpaint əv, 'θriː ˋpaints əv,	ə ˋpaint, 'θriː ˋpaints.
ə ˋkwoːt əv, 'θriː ˋkwoːts əv,	ə ˋkwoːt, 'θriː ˋkwoːts.
ə ˋgalən əv, 'tuː ˋgalənz əv,	ə ˋgalən, 'tuː ˋgalənz.
ə ˋspuːnful əv, 'tuː ˋspuːnfulz əv,	ə ˋspuːnful, 'tuː ˋspuːnfulz.
ə ˋkʌpful əv, 'θriː ˋkʌpfulz əv,	ə ˋkʌpful, 'θriː ˋkʌpfulz.
ə ˋglaːsful əv, 'foə ˋglaːsfulz əv,	ə ˋglaːsful, 'foə ˋglaːsfulz.

ən ˈɪntʃ əv, ˈsiks ˈɪntʃiz əv, | ən ˈɪntʃ, ˈsiks ˈɪntʃiz.
ə ˈfut əv, ˈfaiv ˈfiːt əv, | ə ˈfut, ˈfaiv ˈfiːt.
ə ˈjaːd əv, ˈtuː ˈjaːdz əv, | ə ˈjaːd, ˈtuː ˈjaːdz.
ˈhaːf ə ˈjaːd əv. | ˈhaːf ə ˈjaːd.

Examples:

ai wont ə ˈpaund əv ˌbʌtə. | ai l ˌteik ə ˌpaund.
ˈad ˈθriː ˈspuːnfulz əv ˌwoːtə. | ˈad ˈθriː ˌspuːnfulz.
ai tuk ˈtuː ˈjaːdz əv ˈblak ˌribən. | ai tuk ˈtuː ˌjaːdz.

Containers

Adjectival

ə ˈglaːs əv, ˈtuː ˈglaːsiz əv, | ə ˈdʒʌg əv, ˈθriː ˈdʒʌgz əv.
ə ˈkʌp əv, ˈθriː ˈkʌps əv, | ə ˈtjuːb əv, ˈfoə ˈtjuːbz əv.
ə ˈbotl əv, səm ˈbotlz əv, | ə ˈpleit əv, ˈtuː ˈpleits əv.
ə ˈpot əv, ə ˈfjuː ˈpots əv, | ə ˈbag əv, ˈθriː ˈbagz əv.
ə ˈboul əv, ˈtuː ˈboulz əv, | ə ˈsak əv, səm ˈsaks əv.

Examples of pronominal use:

ˈmei ai ˙ofə ju ə ˈglaːs əv ˈwain?—if ˈðat s ˘wain, ai l ˈhav ə ˌglaːs.
ˈθriː ˈbotlz əv ˌbrandi.—ai ʃəd ˈlaik ə ˌglaːs ov it.

86   Partitive units. These correspond to the "auxiliary numerals" of certain oriental languages.

Adjectival

ə ˈpiːs əv, ˈtuː ˈpiːsiz əv, | ə ˈgrein əv, səm ˈgreinz əv.
ə ˈlʌmp əv, səm ˈlʌmps əv, | ə ˈkeik əv, ˈtuː ˈkeiks əv.
ə ˈbit əv, ˈbits əv, | ə ˈboːl əv, ə ˈfjuː ˈboːlz əv.
ə ˈblok əv, ˈθriː ˈbloks əv, | ə ˈstik əv, ˈsiks ˈstiks əv.
ə ˈʃiːt əv, ə ˈfjuː ˈʃiːts əv, | ən ˈiər əv, səm ˈiəz əv.
ə ˈdrop əv, ˈθriː ˈdrops əv, | ə ˈbleid əv, ˈsevrəl ˈbleidz əv.

Examples of the application of the partitive units:

ə ˈpiːs əv ˌtʃoːk (ˌwud, ˌleðə, ˌkloθ, ˌpeipə, ˌstoun, etc.).
ə ˈlʌmp əv ˌkoul (ˌəːθ, ˌklei, ʃugə*, etc.).
ə ˈbit əv ˌglaːs (ˌwud, ˌtʃoːk, ˌpeipə, ˌstoun, etc.).
ə ˈblok əv ˌwud (ˌstoun, ˌaiən, etc.).
ə ˈʃiːt əv ˌpeipə (ˌkaːdboːd, ˌaiən, etc.).
ə ˈdrop əv ˌwoːtə (ˌwiski, ˌblʌd, etc.).

ə 'grein əv ˌsoːlt (ˌsoːlt, ʃugə*, etc.).

ə 'keik əv ˌsoup, etc.

ə 'boːl əv ˌstriŋ, etc.

ə 'stik əv ˌlikəris, etc.

ən 'iər əv ˌkoːn (ˌwiːt, ˌbaːli, etc.).

ə 'bleid əv ˌgraːs.

THE NUMERICALS

87 Function. The numericals are words or group-words that may serve as an answer to the question 'hau ˌmeni? With the exception of the numeral wʌn they refer only to plural nouns, and may be used either adjectivally or pronominally. They form two general groups:

(*a*) Those that do not add ov when used adjectivally:

　　　'sevr| ˌpiːp|.　　　　　　ə 'fjuː moə ˌbuks.

(*b*) Those that add ov when used adjectivally:

　　　ə 'nʌmbər əv ˌpiːp|.　　ə 'kʌp| əv ˌbuks.

88 The cardinal numbers. In most contexts these belong to class (*a*). Their pronunciation and stressing are shown in the following table.

1 wʌn	11 iˋlevn̩	21 'twenti ˋwʌn
2 tuː	12 twelv	22 'twenti ˋtuː
3 θriː	13 'θəˋtiːn	30 ˋθəːti
4 foə*	14 'foˋtiːn	40 ˋfoːti
5 faiv	15 'fifˋtiːn	50 ˋfifti
6 siks	16 'siksˋtiːn	60 ˋsiksti
7 sevn̩	17 'sevn̩ˋtiːn	70 ˋsevn̩ti
8 eit	18 'eiˋtiːn	80 ˋeiti
9 nain	19 'nainˋtiːn	90 ˋnainti
10 ten	20 ˋtwenti	100 ə ˋhʌndrid

101 ə 'hʌndrid n̩ ˋwʌn	500 'faiv ˋhʌndrid
102 ə 'hʌndrid n̩ ˋtuː	1,000 ə ˋθauzn̩d
200 'tuː ˋhʌndrid	2,000 'tuː ˋθauzn̩d
201 'tuː 'hʌndrid n̩ ˋwʌn	100,000 ə 'hʌndrid ˋθauzn̩d
202 'tuː 'hʌndrid n̩ ˋtuː	1,000,000 ə ˋmiljən

Stress is an important element in helping to distinguish between the double-stressed "teens" and the single-stressed "tens," as is shown in the following examples:

'fif ̇tiːn ˌmen.   ʃi z 'dʒʌst fifˌtiːn.
'fifti ˌmen.   ʃi z 'dʒʌst ˌfifti.

In counting, however, the sense of contrast causes the "teens" to become single-stressed:

ˌθəːtiːn, ˌfoːtiːn, ˌfiftiːn, ˌsikstiːn, ˌsevn̩tiːn, ˌeitiːn, ˌnaintiːn.

The indefinite article that normally precedes certain cardinal numbers (ə ˋhʌndrid, ə ˋθauzn̩d, ə 'hʌndrid ˌθauzn̩d, ə ˌmiljən and the compounds ə 'hʌndrid n̩ ˌwʌn, etc.) is omitted when another determiner is used with the numeral, thus:

ðə 'hʌndrid ˌdeiz.   'ðis 'fəːst ˙hʌndrid ˌθauzn̩d.
'evri 'hʌndrid ˌmailz.   hiz 'miljən ˌriːzn̩z.
'sevr| 'θauzn̩d ˌpaundz.   ə 'fjuː ˙miljən ˌpiːp|.

After sʌm and meni (and sometimes after sevr|) the numerical is pluralized and is followed by ov.

'sʌm 'hʌndridz əv ˌpeidʒiz.   'sʌm 'hʌndridz əv ˋθauzn̩dz ov ðm̩.
'sevr| ˋθauzn̩dz əv ðm̩.   'meni ˋmiljənz əv ˌpiːp|.

But if sʌm is used with a singular numerical in the sense of əˋproksimitli it is not followed by ov.

ju l 'faind it 'sʌm (= əbaut ə) 'hʌndrid ˙peidʒiz 'fəːðər ˌon.

The cardinal numbers may themselves be modified by various words such as articles, əˊbaut, igˊzaktli, 'ounli (which precede), and moə* (which follows), but ounli may follow a cardinal number used pronominally.

Adjectival	*Pronominal*
'ounli ˋθriː moə ˌstamps.	ai 'ounli ˋsoː əbaut ˌsiks.[1]
'θriː moə ˌdeiz.	ðər ər 'ounli ˋθriː ˌmoə.
'ounli ˋθriː ˌwiːks.	ai ˌsoː 'θriː ˋounli.
əbaut 'foːti ˌpiːp|.	igˊzaktli ˌθəːti
ˋwʌn buk, ˋtuː buks,	ai v 'ounli got ˌwʌn
ˋθriː buks, etc.	(ˌtuː, ˌθriː, etc.).[1]

When a cardinal number (other than wʌn) is followed by a noun indicating a weight or measure the latter is in the plural if it is

[1] Note that in spoken English ounli generally has the same position as oːlwiz.

acting in a substantive capacity; if, however, it is followed by another noun it is then acting adjectivally, and remains in the singular. Examples:

it 'weiz ˙ten ˌpaundz.	but it s ə 'ten ˙paund ˌtəːki.
hi z 'siks ˙fiːt ˌtuː.	,, hi z ə 'siks ˙fut ˌman.
it s 'θriː ˌmailz.	,, it s ə 'θriː ˙mail ˌwoːk.

The cardinal numbers are followed by ɒv when they are used to indicate a certain number of persons or things extracted from a larger collection. In this case the noun is preceded by another determiner.

> ai ˌwont 'foər əv ˙ðouz ˌbuks.
> hi 'geiv mi 'ten əv iz ˌtʃeriz.

When the cardinal numbers are preceded by words such as nʌmbə*, peidʒ, buk, tʃaptə*, paːt, to form ordinal equivalents, the article is not used.

> 'weə z nʌmbə ˌwʌn ?   ju l 'faind ˙ðat on 'peidʒ ˌwʌn.
> wi 'got əz ˙faːr əz 'tʃaptə ˌθriː ˌlaːst ˌtaim.

89   **Numericals not adding ɒv.** In the following general list nou is adjectival and nʌn pronominal; all the other numericals may be used in either capacity.

oːl	'meni ˋmoə*	(ðə) ˋmoust
'not ˋoːl	'sevrl̩ ˋmoə*	'tuː ˋmeni
ˋmeni	moə*	i˅nʌf
sʌm, sm̩	sm̩ ˋmoə*	'tuː ˋfjuː
ˋeni	'eni ˋmoə*	ə ˋfjuː
nou	ˋfjuə*	fjuː
nʌn	'meni ˋfjuə*	(ðə) ˋfjuist

Examples:

Adjectival	*Pronominal*
'oːl 'plaːnts hav ˌruːts.	'ðiːz ər 'oːl ˌmain.
wil ju 'get mi səm ˋstamps ?	wil ju ˋget mi sʌm ?
həv ju 'got eni ˋstamps ?	həv ju ˋgot eni ?
ðər ə 'nou ˌmatʃiz.	ðər ˋaː nʌn (*or* ðər ˋaːnt eni).
ai v got 'sevrl̩ ˙θiŋz tə ˌtel ju.	ðər ə ˋsevrl̩.
kən ju 'speə mi ə ˙fjuː ˋmatʃiz ?	kən ju ˋspeə mi ə ˙fjuː ?

ðər ə 'fjuə 'piːpl ðən ai ˏθoːt.   ˋnot ˏmoə; ˋfjuə.
'huː z ˙meid ðə 'fjuːist misˏteiks?   ˋjuː v ˏmeid ðə ˏfjuːist.
ˋmeni ˏpiːpl ˏθiŋk sou.   ai ˋhavṇt ˏmeni.
ju 'oːt tə ˙ləːn 'moə ˋwəːdz.   ðər ə 'moə ðən ai ˋθoːt.
ˋjuː v ˏmeid ðə ˋmoust misˏteiks.   'huː z ˙got ðə ˏmoust?
ai 'wont səm ˙moə ˏstamps.   ai 'wont səm ˏmoə.
həv ju 'got iˑnʌf ˊmatʃiz?   həv ju 'got iˊnʌf?
ðər ə 'nou moːr ˏenviloups.   ðər ə 'nou moə ˏleft.

90   Numericals adding ov.

Indicating degree of quantity

Adjectival	*Pronominal*
ə ˋlot əv, ˋlots əv,	ə ˋlot, ˋlots.
ə ˋnʌmbər əv, ˋnʌmbəz əv,	ə ˋnʌmbə*, ˋnʌmbəz.
ə 'gud ˋnʌmbər əv,	ə 'gud ˋnʌmbə*.
ə 'greit ˋnʌmbər əv,	ə 'greit ˋnʌmbə*,
'greit ˋnʌmbəz əv.	'greit ˋnʌmbəz.
ə 'smoːl ˋnʌmbər əv,	ə 'smoːl ˋnʌmbə*.
ə ˋkʌpḷ əv,	ə ˋkʌpḷ.
ə ˋhiːp əv, ˋhiːps əv,	ə ˋhiːp (ov ðəm).
ə ˋmas əv,	ə ˋmas (ov ðəm),
ˋmasiz əv,	ˋmasiz (ov ðəm).
ˋplenti əv,	ˋplenti.
ˋbouθ əv,	ˋbouθ.

Mixed examples:

ju l faind ˋlots əv igˏzaːmpḷz laik ˏðat.
ju ˏsiːm tə hav ə ˏgud ˏnʌmbər əv ˏbuks hiə.
'hau ˙meni d ju ˏwont? —ou, əbaut ə ˏkʌpḷ.
'teik əz ˙meni əz ju ˏlaik, ai v got ˋhiːps (ov ðəm) ət ˏhoum.
hi ˏsiːmz tə hav ˏplenti əv ˏfrendz.

Weights and measures

These are identical with the weights and measures shown as quantitatives in §85.

Containers

These are identical with the containers shown as quantitatives in §85.

Collectives

These are generally used adjectivally.

ə ˈpeər əv, ˈpeəz əv,   ə ˈgruːp əv, ˈgruːps əv,
ə ˈset əv, ˈsets əv,   ə ˈkʌmpəni əv, ˈkʌmpəniz əv.
ə kəˈlekʃn̩ əv, kəˈlekʃn̩z əv,   ə bəˈtaljən əv, bəˈtaljənz əv.
ə ˈsiəriz əv, ˈsiəriːz əv.   ə ˈredʒmənt əv, ˈredʒmənts əv.
ə ˈbʌntʃ əv, ˈbʌntʃiz əv.   ən ˈaːmi əv, ˈaːmiz əv.

> ə ˈpeər əv ˌʃuːz (ˌbuːts, ˌsoks, etc.).
> ə ˈgruːp əv igˌzaːmpl̩z, etc.
> ə ˈset əv ˌtiːθ (ˌdroəz, etc.).
> ə kəˈlekʃn̩ əv ˌstamps (ˌspesimənz, etc.).
> ə ˈsiəriz əv igˌzaːmpl̩z, etc.
> ə ˈbʌntʃ əv ˌgreips, etc.
> ə ˈkʌmpəni əv ˌsouldʒəz, etc.

By omitting the word **ov**, such group-words may occasionally be used pronominally, but it is more usual to replace **ov** by **ov ðəm**, thus making compound pronoun-equivalents.

91 Equivalents of quantitatives and numericals. In addition to the foregoing lists of quantitative and numerical determiners, there exists another (and almost unlimited) series of collocations used to express quantity, number and fractional parts. The distinguishing difference appears to be this:

The quantitatives and numericals proper may qualify *nouns which are unaccompanied by an article or a similar determiner*; in such cases they *replace* the article, etc.

> ə ˈlitl̩ ˌmʌni, ə ˈlot əv ˌmʌni;
> ˈtuː ˌbuks, ə ˈfjuː ˌbuks, ə ˈkʌpl̩ əv ˌbuks, etc.

The quantitative and numerical equivalents, on the other hand, qualify nouns which are already qualified by an article or a similar determiner; in such cases they *do not* replace the article, etc.

> ðə ˈhoul əv ðə ˌmʌni, ə ˈkwoːtər əv ən ˌauə,
> ə ˈpaːt əv mai ˌmʌni, ˈnʌn əv ˈðiːz ˌpiːpl̩, etc.

In such cases it is difficult to say which is head-word and which is qualifier. In ə ˈpaːt əv mai ˌmʌni it may be considered that the noun ˌpaːt is qualified by the phrase əv mai ˈmʌni; or it may be

held that ˈmʌni is the chief noun, and that this is qualified by ə ˌpaːt əv and by ˈmai.

The following is a list of the more important determiner equivalents that serve as quantitatives:

ˈmʌtʃ əv	ə ˈgud diːl ˈmoər əv
ə ˈlitl əv	ə ˈgreit diːl ˈmoər əv

The following serve as numericals:

ˈmeni əv	ə ˈgud meni ˈmoər əv
ˈsevr| əv	ə ˈgreit meni ˈmoər əv
ə ˈdʌzn əv	ˈwʌn əv
ə ˈfjuː əv	ˈtuː əv, etc.

The following serve as either quantitatives or numericals:

ˈmoust əv	ˈmoər əv
ˈsʌm əv	sm̩ ˈmoər əv
ˈeni əv	eni ˈmoər əv
ˈnʌn əv	ˈnou ˈmoər əv
ə ˈpaːt əv	ˈhaːf əv
ˈoːl əv	ə ˈθoːd əv
ðə ˈhoul əv	ə ˈkwoːtər əv

The corresponding pronominals to the above are formed

(*a*) By simply suppressing the ov.

ˈjuː v ˈgot ə gud ˈmeni ˌbuks, bət ˈai v got ə ˈgud meni ˈmoə.

(*b*) By replacing the ov by ov it for the quantitatives and by ov ðəm for the numericals.

if ju ˈlaik ðat ˌpeipə, ju d ˈbetə ˈbai səm ˈmoər ov it.
if ju ˈlaik ðouz ˌbuks, ju d ˈbetə ˈbai səm ˈmoər ov ðəm.

92 Restricted use of mʌtʃ and meni. The words mʌtʃ (used with uncountables) and meni (used with countables) are almost invariably replaced by ə lot, ə laːdʒ nʌmbə*, ə laːdʒ kwontiti, plenti, ə gud diːl, etc., except in the following cases:

1. When used in negative sentences:

ðər ˈizn̩t ˌmʌtʃ. ðər ˈaːnt ˌmeni.

2. When used in general questions:

> 'iz ðə 'mʌtʃ?   'aː ðə 'meni?

3. In clauses introduced by weðə* or if:

> ai 'dount nou ˙weðə ju l ˋsiː ˌmʌtʃ (*or* ˌmeni).

4. When preceded by az, sou, tuː and hau:

> ai v ˌgot əz 'mʌtʃ (*or* 'meni) əz ai ˏwont.
> ai 'ʃudn̩t 'teik sou ˋmʌtʃ (*or* ˋmeni) if ˏai wə juː.
> ju v 'givn̩ mi 'tuː ˋmʌtʃ (*or* ˋmeni).
> 'hau mʌtʃ (*or* meni) d ju ˏwont?

5. When modifying or standing for the subject of the sentence:

> 'mʌtʃ əv ˙ðis | 'hav tə bi ˏtʃeindʒd.
> 'meni piːpl̩ ˙θiŋk it 'oːt tə bi ˏtʃeindʒd.

Similar rules of usage are found in connection with the adverbs
faː* (distance) and loŋ (time), which are replaced by ə loŋ wei
and ə loŋ taim, respectively.

THE ORDINALS

93   General list.   This class of determiners includes the ordinal
numbers and the two words nekst and laːst. Of all the determiners,
they approach nearest grammatically and semantically to adjectives.

1st fəːst	11th iˋlevn̩θ	21st 'twenti ˋfəːst
2nd ˋsekənd	12th twelfθ	22nd 'twenti ˋsekn̩d
3rd θəːd	13th 'θəːˋtiːnθ	30th ˋθəːtiiθ
4th foːθ	14th 'foːˋtiːnθ	40th ˋfoːtiiθ
5th fifθ	15th 'fifˋtiːnθ	50th ˋfiftiiθ
6th siksθ	16th 'siksˋtiːnθ	60th ˋsikstiiθ
7th ˋsevn̩θ	17th 'sevn̩ˋtiːnθ	70th ˋsevn̩tiiθ
8th eitθ	18th 'eiˋtiːnθ	80th ˋeitiiθ
9th nainθ	19th 'nainˋtiːnθ	90th ˋnaintiiθ
10th tenθ	20th ˋtwentiiθ	100th ˋhʌndridθ

101st 'hʌndrid n̩ ˋfəːst	500th 'faiv ˋhʌndridθ
102nd 'hʌndrid n̩ ˋsekənd	1000th ˋθauzn̩dθ
200th 'tuː ˋhʌndridθ	2000th 'tuː θauzn̩dθ
201st 'tuː 'hʌndrid n̩ ˋfəːst	100,000th 'hʌndrid ˋθauzn̩dθ
202nd 'tuː 'hʌndrid n̩ ˋsekn̩d	1,000,000th ˋmiljənθ

94 Uses of the ordinals. The ordinal numbers are generally preceded by other determiners:

ðə 'fəːst ˌtaim.   mai 'sekn̩d ˋjiə.

They serve as qualifiers or as pronouns:

ai 'tuk ðə 'fəːst ˌbuk.   ai 'tuk ðə ˌfəːst.

They may occasionally be used predicatively:

ai wəz ˋfəːst.

They may be used with or without the semi-pronoun wʌn:

'did ju ˙teik ðə ˋfəːst (wʌn) oː ðə ˌsekənd (wʌn)?

laːst is used without the definite or other articles when compounded with nait, wiːk, mʌnθ, jiə*, taim, and the names of the seasons to form adverbials of past time in the sense of "immediately before this."

nekst is used without the definite article when compounded with wiːk, mʌnθ, jiə*, taim and the names of the seasons to form adverbials of future time in the sense of "immediately after this."

ai 'soː im ˙laːst ˌnait.   hi z 'kʌmiŋ hiə 'nekst ˌmʌnθ.
it 'reind ˙evri ˌdei ˌlaːst ˌwiːk   'betə 'lʌk 'nekst ˌtaim.
wi 'went tə ˋskotlənd ˌlaːst ˌsʌmə.   ʃi z 'gouiŋ əˋbroːd ˌnekst ˌwintə.

To give the sense of "concluding" or "following" the definite article is used.

ai 'went ðeə ðə 'laːst ˌwiːk (= ðə kənˋkluːdiŋ ˌwiːk).
ai 'went ðeə ðə 'nekst ˌwiːk (= ðə ˋfoluiŋ ˌwiːk).

Note the use of the ordinals in royal titles:

(kiŋ) 'dʒoːdʒ ðə ˌsiksθ.   (kwiːn) iˈlizəbəθ ðə ˌsekənd.

The ordinals fəːst, nekst and laːst may be modified by veri, which serves to intensify the meaning of each:

ðə 'veri 'fəːst ˌtaim.   ðə 'veri 'nekst ˌdei.

COLLOCATIONS OF DETERMINERS

95 Collocations of ʌðə*. This determiner enters into two collocations to form what are sometimes called reciprocal pronouns, since they can act as pronouns with verbs to express a mutual activity.

iːtʃ ʌðə* generally implies two persons:
  wi 'dount ˋspiːk tu iːtʃ ʌðə ˏnau.
  'tuː əv ðə ˙stjuːdn̩ts ə ˋhelpiŋ iːtʃ ʌðə.

wʌn ənʌðə* generally implies more than two persons:
  'juː ˙piːpl̩ ʃəd ˋhelp wʌn ənʌðə ˏmoə.

The reciprocal pronouns may be used as possessives:
  'ðouz piːpl̩ 'siːm tə bi in˙dʒɔiiŋ iːtʃ ʌðəz ˅kʌmpəni.
  wi 'dount veri ˙ofn̩ dis'kʌs auə ˏplanz tə ˏgeðə, bikoz wi ə 'not
  veri ˙intristid in wʌn ənʌðəz ˋwəːk.

96   Collocations of bouθ and ɔːl.   The determiners bouθ and
ɔːl form collocations with the plural personal pronouns as shown
in the following table:

Subject:	*Subject or Object:*	*Object:*
wi ˋbouθ	ˋbouθ əv əs	əs ˋbouθ
ju ˋbouθ	ˋbouθ əv ju	ju ˋbouθ
ðei ˋbouθ	ˋbouθ əv ðəm	ðəm ˋbouθ
wi ˋɔːl	ˋɔːl əv əs	əs ˋɔːl
ju ˋɔːl	ˋɔːl əv ju	ju ˋɔːl
ðei ˋɔːl	ˋɔːl əv ðəm	ðəm ˋɔːl

Those shown in the first column are used only in the subject
position and those in the third column only in the object position.
Those in the middle column may be used in either position.

  wi ˋɔːl ˏspouk tə him.   hi 'spouk tu əs ˏɔːl.
  ˋɔːl əv əs ˏspouk tə him.   hi 'spouk tu ˏɔːl əv əs.

97   Collocations of evri.   The determiner evri forms collocations
with the cardinal and ordinal numbers.   These collocations may be
either adjectival or pronominal.

Adjectival:

  ai 'gou ðeər əbaut 'evri ˙θriː ˏdeiz əz ə ˏruːl.
  ə 'repri˙zentətiv z i˙lektid fər 'evri ˙hʌndrid ˏmembəz.
  ðə z ə 'lamppoust in ˙frʌnt əv 'evri ˙fiftiːnθ ˏhaus.
  wi 'gou ðeər 'evri 'θəːd ˙wiːk in ðə ˏmʌnθ.

Pronominal:

> ai 'niːd sm̩ ˅briks ; ai I 'giv ju ə ˙peni fər 'evri ˙faiv ju ˌbriŋ mi.
> inˈsted əv ˙teikiŋ wʌn evri ˅θəːd dei, 'trai ˙teikiŋ wʌn
> evri ˅foːθ.

evri forms with ʌðə* a collocation which has two different
meanings, and context alone determines which meaning is intended.

Adjectival:

- (a) ˅ai sed ˅jes", bət 'evri ˅ʌðə ˌpəːsn̩ sed ˅nou".
    ('evri ˙ʌðə ˙pəːsn̩ = 'evribodi ˅els, *or* 'oːl ði ˅ʌðə ˌpiːpl̩.)

- (b) hi 'didn̩t ˙koːl ət ˅evri ˌhaus, bət ət ˙evri ˅ʌðə ˌhaus.
    ('evri ˙ʌðə ˙haus = 'evri oːl˅təːnit ˌhaus.)

Pronominal:

- (a) 'ðis iz ði 'ounli ˙peidʒ ˅left ; ai v dis˅troid evri ˌʌðə.
    ('evri ˙ʌðər = ˅oːl ði ˌʌðəz.)

Sometimes not even the context will show which meaning is
intended : 'evri ˙ʌðə ˙boi in ðə ˙klaːs wəz ˅roŋ may mean that all
the other boys were wrong or that every alternate boy was wrong.

98 Collocations of sʌtʃ. The determiner sʌtʃ forms collocations
with oːl, evri, meni, sʌm, eni, nou and ənʌðə* which express a
similarity to something already in mind. Though they are usually
adjectival, some of them may be used pronominally.

Adjectival:

> 'oːl sʌtʃ ˙θiŋz ə bi'jond mai ˅miːnz.
> 'evri sʌtʃ ˙pəːsn̩ əz bin i˅limiˌneitid.
> ˅meni sʌtʃ misˌteiks əv bin ˌmeid.
> ˅sʌm sʌtʃ ˌtrʌbl̩ wəz ˅baund tu əˌkəː.
> ai 'wount əkˈsept 'eni sʌtʃ ˌfoːlti wʌnz.
> ai ˌment 'nou sʌtʃ ˌθiŋ !
> ə˅nʌðə sʌtʃ iksˌpiəriəns wəd bi ði ˅end əv mi !

Pronominal:

> wiː I ˌhelp 'oːl ˙sʌtʃ əz ə˅griː wið əs.
> ˅meni ˌsʌtʃ əv ˅feild in ˌlaif.
> həv ju 'evə ˙met ə˅nʌðə ˙sʌtʃ ?

C. Adjectives

TYPES OF ADJECTIVES

99 Definition.   Adjectives may be defined as qualifiers of nouns; that is to say, they describe or indicate the person or thing denoted by the noun.   They are marked in general by the following characteristics :

- (*a*) They serve to answer the questions *what kind of . . .?* and *what . . . like?*
- (*b*) They may serve to answer the question *which . . .?*
- (*c*) They may be used to qualify nouns attributively or predicatively (i.e., as subject-complement).
- (*d*) They may usually be modified by adverbs of degree.
- (*e*) They can usually form adverb-derivatives by adding li (*-ly*) and noun-derivatives by adding nis (*-ness*).   . .

The following classes of words are therefore excluded from this category :

- (*a*) Possessive nouns.
- (*b*) Nouns qualifying other nouns.
- (*c*) Participles proper.
- (*d*) Determiners.

Adjectives may be grouped into the two following classes :

- (*a*) *Adjectives Proper* ; simple, derivative and compound.
- (*b*) *Participials*, which may be either *Active* or *Passive*.

100 Adjectives proper.   It is difficult, if not impossible, to draw a rigid line of demarcation between simple and derivative adjectives. Words such as gud, wait, fri: are obviously simple and indecomposable ; words such as ˈreini, ˈmʌnθli, ˈwaitiʃ, ˈʌnˈseif, formed from existing words by means of living affixes, are clearly derivatives.   But between these two extremes we find adjectives such as ˈobviəs, ˈevidənt, ˈbriljənt, which are for all practical purposes indecomposable, and others, such as ˈnoːðən, ikˈspensiv, riˈmaːkəbl, ˈhoulsəm, formed from recognizable roots (many of which are altered in form or meaning) and more or less obsolete affixes ;

these cannot be considered as simple words, and yet they do not belong to the class of derivatives that may be built up synthetically.

The following categories, ranging almost imperceptibly from one extreme to the other, will give some idea of the various formal characteristics of adjectives.

(a) gud, bad, wait, laːdʒ, smoːl, friː, etc. (For fuller list see §114.)

(b) ˈjelou, ˈklevə*, ˈsimpl̩, ˈkomən, pəˈlait, siˈviə*, ˈbizi, ˈpriti, etc. (For fuller list see §115.)

(c) ˈneitiv, ˈbriljənt, ˈhansəm, ˈoːkwəd, ˈliːgl̩, iˈmens, kənˈviːnjənt, ˈevidənt, ˈsailənt, ˈkjuəriəs, ˈobviəs, ˈlaikli, ˈhandi, frentʃ, ˈiŋgliʃ, ˈhoulsəm, ˈlounli, ˈnoːðən, ˈsʌðən, ˈiːstən, ˈwestən, ˈspaniʃ, ˈswiːdiʃ, ˈdʒapəˈniːz, ˈtʃaiˈniːz, ˈkworəlsəm, ˈsensibl̩, fəˈnetik, ˈenəˈdʒetik, ˈdefinit, ˈaktiv, ˈrelətiv, ikˈspresiv.

(d) ˈwudn̩, ˈwulən, ˈmanli, ˈaŋgri, ˈhʌŋgri, ˈnoːθwəd, ˈwestwəd, ˈhoumwəd, ˈposibl̩, ˈprobəbl̩, riˈmaːkəbl̩, kənˈsidərəbl̩.

(e) ˈdeili, ˈdəːti, ˈfʌni, ˈiːzi, ˈreini, ˈwindi, ˈstoːmi, ˈsʌni, ˈfogi, ˈfrosti, ˈklaudi, ˈhoupfl̩, ˈkeəfl̩, ˈhelpfl̩, ˈjuːsfl̩, ˈpeinfl̩, ˈtʃiəfl̩, ˈhouplis, ˈkeəlis, ˈhelplis, ˈniːdlis, ˈjuːslis, ˈpeinlis, ˈriːdəbl̩, riˈlaiəbl̩, ˈtʃeindʒəbl̩, ˈgloːriəs, ˈfeiməs, ˈnəːvəs, diˈpendənt, ˌaːˈtistik, miˈtalik.

(f) ˈrediʃ, ˈwaitiʃ, ˈkouldiʃ, ˈswiːtiʃ, ˈʌnˈtaidi, ˈʌnˈseif, ˈʌnˈtruː, ˈʌnˈwaiz, ˈʌnˈkaind, ˈinəˈfensiv, ˈinsinˈsiə*, ˈiŋkəmˈpliːt, ˈindiˈpen-dənt, imˈposibl̩, imˈpəːfikt, ˈimpəˈlait, imˈprobəbl̩.

Examples of Compound Adjectives:

ˈpitʃ ˈdaːk, ˈskai ˈbluː, ˈdaːk ˈred, ˈlait ˈgriːn, ˈtʃaildˌlaik, ˈspriŋˌlaik, ˈnon-igˈzistənt, ˈgudˈlukiŋ, ˈouvə-pəˈlait, ˈsemiˈadʒikˈtaivl̩.

101 Participials. A certain number of participles (both present and past) are used with the functions of adjectives, and differ very little from adjectives proper. They may be termed *Participial Adjectives*, or simply *Participials*. It is not always easy to distinguish participles proper from participial adjectives. One test is to ascertain by ear whether they may be modified by adverbs such as veri, tuː, inʌf, hau, etc. If they are so modifiable, they may be considered as participial adjectives ; if not, they must be considered simply as participles, in which case they are modifiable by such words and word-groups as mʌtʃ, veri mʌtʃ, tuː mʌtʃ, etc.

102 Active participials. Certain words which are sometimes purely adjectival in function are derived from the *ing*-form of verbs, from which these are therefore indistinguishable in form. The following are selected from those most commonly used:

ə'mjuːziŋ	dis'kʌridʒiŋ	'laːstiŋ	'pʌzliŋ
'tʃaːmiŋ	iŋ'kʌridʒiŋ	'lʌviŋ	ri'freʃiŋ
'tʃiəriŋ	ik'saitiŋ	'misiŋ	'ʃokiŋ
'kʌmfətiŋ	ig'zoːstiŋ	'mis'liːdiŋ	'straikiŋ
kən'fjuːziŋ	'graːspiŋ	ə'blaidʒiŋ	sə'praiziŋ
kən'vinsiŋ	'intristiŋ	'pliːziŋ	'temptiŋ
'defniŋ	in'vaitiŋ	'presiŋ	'teri,faiiŋ
'disə'pointiŋ	'nouiŋ	'promisiŋ	

103 Negative active participials. Their adjectival character is particularly brought out by the fact that many of them have negative forms in ʌn-, though the corresponding verbs cannot be so modified, e.g., 'pliːziŋ—'ʌn'pliːziŋ, correspond exactly to 'pleznt and 'ʌn'pleznt, though the corresponding negative modification of the verb is dis-.

'ʌn'tʃeindʒiŋ	'ʌnfə'giviŋ	'ʌnəb'zəːviŋ	'ʌn'satis,faiiŋ
'ʌnkəm'pleiniŋ	'ʌn'heziteitiŋ	'ʌnə'fendiŋ	'ʌnsəs'teiniŋ
'ʌndi'zəːviŋ	'ʌn'intristiŋ	'ʌn'pliːziŋ	'ʌn'temptiŋ
'ʌniŋ'kʌridʒiŋ	'ʌnin'vaitiŋ	'ʌn'promisiŋ	
'ʌn'flatəriŋ	'ʌnə'blaidʒiŋ	'ʌnri'freʃiŋ	

ai v ˌhəːd 'veri ʌn'flatəriŋ ə'kaunts ov im.

ði ə'kaunts ai v 'həːd ov im ə 'veri ʌnˌflatəriŋ.

ə ˌmoust ʌnˌintristiŋ ˌbuk. ˌðis 'buk s 'moust ʌnˌintristiŋ.

The participials in this section can hardly be considered as present participles proper, for no such verbs exist as tu 'ʌn'tʃeindʒ, tu 'ʌnkəm'plein, etc.

104 Compound active participials. A certain number of these adjectives may be used in composition with an adverbial or other prefix, though such adverbs or other prefixes would not be so compounded with the corresponding verbs. Examples:

'friːkwn̩tli-ə'kəːriŋ	'nevə'feiliŋ	'wel'miːniŋ
'self-di'dʒestiŋ	'haːd'wəːkiŋ	'wel'fitiŋ
'self-sə'poːtiŋ	'faː'siːiŋ	'gud 'lukiŋ

The stress falls on the first element when these words are used as qualifiers, while the kinetic stress falls on the second element when they are used predicatively:

ə 'wel-fitiŋ ˋkout.   'ðis ˙kout s 'welˋfitiŋ.

Many adjectives of this type may be used as qualifiers, but when used as subject-complement the present participle together with bi: may constitute simply the progressive form of the verb. Thus in hi z əˋmjuːziŋ the word əˋmjuːziŋ is a true adjective, equal to such adjectives as ˋkomik| or ˋfʌni. But in hi z ə'mjuːziŋ ðə ˌtʃildrən the word əˋmjuːziŋ is the present participle of the verb əˋmjuːz forming the present tense of the verb in the aspect of activity. In hi z ˋkʌmiŋ, ˙hi z ˋliːdiŋ, etc., however, the words ˋkʌmiŋ, ˋliːdiŋ, etc., are simply present participles, not participial adjectives.

Note also that a present participle, as such, is not modifiable by such adverbs as veri, tuː, etc. Thus we say hi z 'veri əˋmjuːziŋ, but not hi z 'veri ə˙mjuːziŋ ðə ˋtʃildrən, and we never say hi z 'veri ˋkʌmiŋ.

The following are typical cases of present participles that are seldom used as subject-complements.

ˋkʌmiŋ, igˋzistiŋ, ˋfoluiŋ, iŋˋkriːsiŋ, ˋliːdiŋ, ˋliviŋ, priˋsiːdiŋ, riˋmeiniŋ, səˋraundiŋ.

105 Passive participials. These consist generally of the past participle form of certain verbs. The following are selected from those most commonly used:

ˌʌpˋset[1]	əˋstoniʃt	ˋkompliˌkeitid	səˋpraizd
diˋsaidid	əˋfendid	kənˋfjuːzd	ˋseliˌbreitid
diˋlaitid	ˋfeidid	kənˋtentid	ˋsivilaizd
diˋvoutid	ˋfraitn̩d	ˋkraudid	ˋspoukən
'disəˋpointid	ˋhʌrid	ˋkwolifaid	ˋʃeltəd
'diskənˋtentid	ikˋsaitid	ˋnoutid	ˋteriˌfaid
disˋkʌridʒd	igˋzoːstid	ˋpliːzd	ˋtaiəd
disˋtiŋgwiʃt	iksˋpiəriənst	ˋpʌz|d	ˋwʌrid
ˋdrʌŋk[2]	'iniksˋpiəriənst	riˋzəːvd	
əˋmjuːzd	ˋintristid	ˋsatisˌfaid	

it s ə ˋsivilaizd ˌkʌntri.   ðə ˋkʌntri z ˌsivilaizd.

hi z ə 'veri iks'piəriənst ˌtiːtʃə.   hi z 'veri iksˎpiəriənst

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[1] Only used as subject-complement.
[2] ˋdrʌŋkən when used as qualifier.

106 Negative passive participials. In addition to the past participles of a few verbs in ʌn- (e.g. 'ʌn'duː, 'ʌn'tai), there are a considerable number of passive participials in ʌn- to which there are no corresponding verbs, for the ʌn- is a purely negative prefix and might be replaced by not or non-. The following list includes the commonest negative passive participials:

'ʌn'bʌtn̩d	'ʌndis'təːbd	'ʌn'həːt	'ʌn'poliʃt
'ʌn'koːld foː*	'ʌn'dremt ov	'ʌnintə'rʌptid	'ʌnpri'peəd
'ʌn'klasifaid	'ʌn'drest	'ʌnin'vaitid	'ʌn'pruːvd
'ʌn'kukt	'ʌn'iːtn̩	'ʌn'noun	'ʌn'kwolifaid
'ʌn'koːkt	'ʌn'edjukeitid	'ʌn'marid	'ʌn'siːn
'ʌn'kʌvəd	'ʌnik'spektid	'ʌn'mauntid	'ʌn'set|d
'ʌn'kʌt	'ʌnfoː'siːn	'ʌn'noutist	'ʌnsə'poːtid
'ʌn'damidʒd	'ʌn'finiʃt	'ʌn'okjupaid	'ʌnsəs'pektid
'ʌndi'saidid	'ʌn'həːd ov	'ʌn'oupənd	'ʌn'tʌtʃt

107 Compound passive participials. A certain number of these may be formed, on the model of:

'wel-bi'heivd	'badli'dʌn	'wel'laitid
'badli-bi'heivd	'haːf'dʌn	'badli'laitid
'wel'bilt	'ʌndə'dʌn	'wel'meid
'badli'bilt	'haːf'draund	'badli'meid
'haːf'bilt	'haːf'iːtn̩	'redi'meid
'wel'kliːnd	'wel'drest	'wel'manidʒd
'haili'kʌləd	'badli'drest	'badli'manidʒd
'self'konstitjuːtid	'haːf'drest	'wel'peid
'wel'kukt	'wel'edjukeitid	'badli'peid
'badli'kukt	'haːf'edjukeitid	'ouvə-səb'skraibd
'haːf'kukt	'gud'hjuːməd	'wel-θoːt'aut
'wel-di'faind	'wel-in'foːmd	'gud'tound
'wel-di'dʒestid	'wel'kept	'haːf'woːmd
'wel-dis'pouzd	'badli'kept	'kliːn'ʃeivn̩
'wel'dʌn	'houm'kild	

When such compounds are used as qualifiers, the stress falls on the first element ; when they are used predicatively, the kinetic tone (if any) falls on the second :

ðəi ə 'wel-biheivd ˌtʃildrən. ðəi ə 'wel-biˌheivd.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

108 Comparative of superiority. This is formed in two manners:

a. By placing the adverb **moə*** before, and the conjunction **ðən[1]** after the adjective. This is the non-inflexional mode of comparison:

>   'ðis buk s ˙moər ˈintristiŋ (ðən ˌðat wʌn).

b. By using the comparative inflexion of the adjective, followed by the conjunction **ðən[1]**. This is the inflexional mode of comparison:

>   'ðis buk s ˈlaːdʒə (ðən ˌðat wʌn).

109 Comparative of equality. This is expressed by placing the adverb **əz** before, and the conjunction **əz** after, the adjective.

>   'ðis wʌn z əz ˙gud əz ˌðat wʌn.
>   ðis iz ˈdʒʌst əz ˌgud ən igˌzaːmpl̩ əz ði ˌʌðə.
>   ˌmain z ˈdʒʌst əz ˌlaːdʒ əz ˌjoəz.

When the sentence is negative, the adverb **əz** is often replaced by **sou**:

>   ˌðis wʌn 'izn̩t əz (*or* sou) ˙gud əz ˅ðat wʌn.
>   ˌðis wʌn 'izn̩t əz (*or* sou) ˙gud ən igˈzaːmpl̩ əz ði ˅ʌðə.

110 Comparative of inferiority. This is expressed by adding the adverb **les** before, and the conjunction **ðən[1]** after, the adjective:

>   it s 'les ˙kould ðən it ˙woz ˅jestədi.
>   ˅ðis wʌn z 'iːvn̩ 'les ˙intristiŋ ðən ði ˈʌðə.

But this mode of expression is generally felt to be rather formal and bookish, and it is generally replaced by the negative form of the comparative of equality:

>   it 'izn̩t əz ˙kould əz it ˙woz ˅jestədi.
>   ˅ðis wʌn 'izn̩t ˙iːvn̩ əz 'intristiŋ əz ði ˈʌðə.

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[1] The latter part of the comparison (beginning with the conjunction **ðən**) may be omitted.

111 Superlative of superiority.   This is formed in two manners:

a. By placing the adverb **moust** before the adjective.   This is
the non-inflexional mode of comparison:

it s ðə ˌmoust 'intristiŋ ˙buk ai v 'evə ˎred.

b. By using the superlative inflexion of the adjective:

ˌðis iz ði 'iːziist ˙buk ai v 'evə ˎred.

A superlative expression is often completed

a. By a clause beginning with **ðət** (expressed or understood):

ði 'iːziist ˙buk (ðət) ai v 'evə ˎred.

b. By a phrase introduced by the preposition **in**:

ðə 'laːdʒist ˙kʌntri in ˌjuərəp.
ðə 'fainist ˙θiŋ in ðə ˎwəːld.

Other prepositions are also used according to the meaning to
be conveyed:

ðə 'fainist ˙θiŋ on ðə ˌmaːkit.
ðə 'fainist ˙θiŋ ʌndə ðə ˌsʌn.

112 Superlative of inferiority.   This is formed by placing the
adverb **liːst** before the adjective:

ˌðis iz ðə 'liːst ˙intristiŋ ˙buk ai v 'evə ˎred.
ˌðis iz ðə 'liːst ʌndə˙standəb| ˙buk ai v 'evə ˎred.

But the superlative of inferiority is almost invariably replaced
by the superlative of superiority of an adjective expressing the
contrary meaning:

ˌðis iz ðə ˌmoust ʌn'intristiŋ ˙buk ai v 'evə ˎred.
ˌðis iz ðə ˌmoust əbs'kjuə ˙buk ai v 'evə ˎred.

INFLEXIONAL COMPARISON

113 General rule.   The general rule for forming the inflexional
comparison of adjectives is to add **-ə*** for the comparative and **-ist**
for the superlative.   Example:

Positive degree: ðə 'weil z ə ˙laːdʒ ˌanim|.
Comparative degree: it s 'laːdʒə ðən ən ˌelifn̩t.
Superlative degree: it s ðə 'laːdʒist ˙anim| in ðə ˎwəːld.

The inflexional method of comparison is not used for participals. It is used for practically all monosyllabic adjectives and for dissyllabic adjectives having certain final sounds.

The non-inflexional method of comparison is used for other dissyllabic adjectives, for adjectives of more than two syallables and for participials.

114 Monosyllabic adjectives. These are divided into four classes.

a. Certain adjectives that form their comparison irregularly.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
ˋbad	ˋwəːs	ˋwəːst
ˋfaː*[1]	{ ˋfəːðə* ˋfaːðə*	ˋfəːðist ˋfaːðist
ˋgud	ˋbetə*	ˋbest
ˋil	ˋwəːs[2]	ˋwəːst[3]
ˋrait	ˋbetə*	ˋbest
ˋroŋ	ˋwəːs	ˋwəːst
ˋwel[1]	ˋbetə*	ˋbest

b. In the following three cases the comparative and superlative are formed by adding respectively -gə* and -gist.

ˋloŋ	ˋloŋgə*	ˋloŋgist
ˋstroŋ	ˋstroŋgə*	ˋstroŋgist
ˋjʌŋ	ˋjʌŋgə*	ˋjʌŋgist

c. Monosyllabic adjectives ending in a vowel susceptible of adding "linking-r" (marked by the sign *) form their comparative and superlative respectively by adding -rə* and -rist.

ˋbeə*	ˋbeərə*	ˋbeərist
ˋdaiə*	ˋdaiərə*	daiərist
ˋfeə*	ˋfeərə*	ˋfeərist
ˋkliə*	ˋkliərə*	ˋkliərist
ˋkwiə*	ˋkwiərə*	ˋkwiərist
ˋmiə*	ˋmiərə*	ˋmiərist

[1] faː* and wel form their degrees of comparison in the same way when used as adverbs.

[2] Occasionally moər il.

[3] Occasionally moust il.

ˈniə*	ˈniərə*	ˈniərist
ˈpjuə*	ˈpjuərə*	ˈpjuərist
ˈpuə*	ˈpuərə*	ˈpuərist
ˈreə*†	ˈreərə*	ˈreərist
ˈskweə*	ˈskweərə*	ˈskweərist
ˈsoə*†	ˈsoərə*	ˈsoərist
ˈʃuə*	ˈʃuərə*	ˈʃuərist

d. The majority of monosyllabic adjectives follow the general rule for inflexional comparison. Examples:

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
ˈbig	ˈbigə*	ˈbigist
ˈblak	ˈblakə*	ˈblakist
ˈbluː	ˈbluːə*	ˈbluːist

Other adjectives that follow this rule are given below. Some of these (marked with the sign †) may also be compared non-inflexionally.

ˈbould	ˈfriː	ˈlou	ˈsmoːl
ˈbrait	ˈful	ˈmad	ˈsoft
ˈbraun	ˈgei	ˈmaild†	ˈstiːp
ˈbreiv	ˈglad†	ˈmiːn	ˈstif
ˈbroːd	ˈgrei	ˈnais	ˈstil
ˈdaːk	ˈgreit	ˈould†	ˈstreindʒ
ˈdamp	ˈgreiv†	ˈpeil†	ˈstreit
ˈdiːp	ˈgriːn	ˈplein†	ˈswiːt
ˈdrai	ˈhaːd	ˈprompt†	ˈʃaːp
ˈdʌl	ˈhai	ˈraip	ˈtait
ˈfat	ˈhot	ˈraund	ˈteim
ˈfaːst	ˈkaːm†	ˈred	ˈtruː†
ˈfain	ˈkaind	ˈritʃ	ˈθik
ˈfeint	ˈkliːn	ˈruːd	ˈθin
ˈfəːm	ˈkould	ˈsaund†	ˈwaid
ˈfit†	ˈkuːl	ˈsad	ˈwaild
ˈfond†	ˈkros†	ˈseif	ˈwait
ˈfoːls	ˈkwik	ˈsik	ˈwaiz
ˈflat	ˈlaːdʒ	ˈskeəs†	ˈwet
ˈfraŋk†	ˈlait	ˈslait	ˈwiːk
ˈfreʃ	ˈleit	ˈslou	ˈwoːm

115 Dissyllabic adjectives. Many of these form their comparison by the non-inflexional method only, but those having certain terminations are usually inflected. Even here, however, some speakers may use the non-inflexional method in a few contexts. The inflected dissyllabic adjectives in most frequent use are shown below in their various groups.

a. Adjectives ending in -ə* or in one of the diphthongs having -ə* as their second element form their comparative and superlative by adding -rə* and -rist respectively. Example:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
ˈbitə*	ˈbitərə*	ˈbitərist

Other adjectives following this pattern are:

osˈtiə*	diˈmjuə*	ˈklevə*	ˈtendə*
siˈviə*	məˈtʃuə*	ˈslendə*	
sinˈsiə*	əbsˈkjuə*	ˈsoubə*	

b. Adjectives ending in unstressed -ou (which is often weakened to -u) form their comparative and superlative respectively by substituting -uə* and -uist for the final vowel. Example:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
ˈhol(o)u	ˈholuə*	ˈholuist

Other adjectives following this pattern are:

ˈkal(o)u	ˈnar(o)u	ˈʃal(o)u
ˈmel(o)u	ˈsal(o)u	ˈjel(o)u

c. Adjectives ending in -l form their comparative and superlative respectively by substituting -lə* and -list for the l. Example:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
ˈaidl	ˈaidlə*	ˈaidlist

Exceptions which retain the l:

ˈbritl	ˈbritlə*	ˈbritlist
ˈkruːl	ˈkruːlə*	ˈkruːlist

Other adjectives following the pattern of ˈaidl are:

ˈeibl	ˈnimbl	ˈampl	ˈdʒentl
ˈfiːbl	ˈnoubl	ˈsimpl	
ˈhʌmbl	ˈsteibl	ˈsʌtl	

d. Adjectives ending in -i form their comparative and superlative by adding -ə* and -ıst respectively. Example:

Positive	*Comparative*	*Superlative*
ˋaŋgri	ˋaŋgriə*	ˋaŋgriıst

Other adjectives following this pattern are:

ˋaısi	ˋhapi	ˋmeri	ˋspiːdi
ˋbizi	ˋhaːti	ˋmilki	ˋstedi
ˋblʌdi	ˋheəri	ˋmisti	ˋstiki
ˋbuʃi	ˋheisti	ˋmʌdi	ˋstoːmi
ˋdəːti	ˋhelθi	ˋnaːsti	ˋstouni
ˋdindʒi	ˋhevi	ˋniːdi	ˋsʌni
ˋdriːmi	ˋhili	ˋnoːti	ˋʃeidi
ˋdʌsti	ˋhouli	ˋnoizi	ˋʃoui
ˋdʒoli	ˋiŋki	ˋpriti	ˋtaidi
ˋdʒuːsi	ˋiːzi	ˋredi	ˋtaini
ˋempti	ˋkəːli	ˋreini	ˋtriki
ˋəːli	ˋklaudi	ˋriski	ˋtʃili
ˋfilθi	ˋklʌmzi	ˋroki	ˋθəːsti
ˋfiʃi	ˋkouzi	ˋsandi	ˋθoːni
ˋfogi	ˋlaikli	ˋsili	ˋʌgli
ˋfoːlti	ˋleizi	ˋsilki	ˋwelθi
ˋfrosti	ˋleŋθi	ˋsliːpi	ˋwəːði
ˋfʌni	ˋlounli	ˋsmouki	ˋwindi
ˋgriːdi	ˋlʌki	ˋsnoui	ˋwintri
ˋgriːsi	ˋlʌvli	ˋsori	ˋwudi
ˋhandi	ˋmanli	ˋsoupi	ˋwuli

e. A few adjectives ending in miscellaneous sounds form their comparative and superlative inflexionally:

ˋkwaiət	ˋplezn̩t	kənˋsais	ˋkomən
pəˋlait	ˋwikid	priˋsais	

MODIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES

116 Adverb position. Adjectives may be modified by the adverbs marked with the figure B2 in the catalogue of adverbs (§262). In this collocation the adverb is usually placed immediately

before the adjective. Some of the adverbs frequently used as adjective modifiers are: veri, tuː, sou, əz, kwait, raːðə*, feəli, priti, ikstriːmli, moə*, moust, hau. Examples:

it s 'tuː ˏould.   it s 'sou ˏiːzi

it s 'haːdli ˏnesisri.   ai m 'kwait ˏwoːm.

dei ə 'feəli ˏsimpl.   ˏðat s 'moust ˏintristiŋ.

The adverb iˋnʌf follows the adjective:

'iz it ˈlaːdʒ inʌf?   ðei 'aːnt ˏgud inʌf.

When the adverb-adjective collocation is associated with a noun taking an article there are four possible orders in which these four words can be placed.

a. With the adverb inʌf the order is: determiner, adjective, adverb, noun.

'iz it ə ˈlaːdʒ inʌf ˙haus?   it 'izn̩t a ˏgud inʌf igˏzaːmpl.

b. With the adverbs tuː, sou, əz and hau the order is: adverb, adjective, determiner, noun.

it s 'tuː ˏsmoːl ə ˏhaus fə ˏmiː.   'dount ˙teik sou ˏbig ə ˏlʌmp.

'iz it əz 'gud ə ˙pen əz ˈjoəz?   'hau ˏould ə ˏman ˏiz i?

c. When the adverb modifies the verb rather than the adjective the order is: adverb, determiner, adjective, noun. Among adverbs with which this pattern is used are haːdli, skeəsli, kwait, raːðə, not ət oːl, səːtn̩li.

it s 'raːðər ə ˋnais ˏvjuː.   it s ˋhaːdli ə ˏdiːsn̩t ˏwei tə biˏheiv.

it s 'kwait ə 'loŋ ˋwei.   it s ˋskeəsli ðə ˏrait θiŋ tə ˏduː.

it s 'səːtn̩li ə ˋgud ˏbuk.   it 'izn̩t ət ˙oːl ə ˏbad aiˏdiə.

d. When the adverb modifies the adjective the order is: determiner, adverb, adjective, noun, which may be regarded as the normal pattern. It is used with such adverbs as priti, feəli, veri, ikstriːmli, moust, θʌrəli.

hi z ə 'feəli ˙wel red ˏman.   it s ə 'priti ˙difikl̩t ˏsʌbdʒikt.

ðat s ə 'veri ˙gud aiˏdiə.   ʃi z ən iks'triːmli ˙klevə ˏgəːl.

ðei ər ə moust 'komik ˏpeə.   ðə z sm̩ 'θʌrəli diˈpresiŋ ˏnjuːz.

POSITION OF ADJECTIVES

117 Front position. Adjectives generally precede the word they qualify:

sṃ 'laːdʒ ˌhauziz.	ən 'intristiŋ ˌbuk.
sṃ 'broukən ˌbotǀz.	ə 'gudˈlukiŋ ˌman.
ðə 'deili ˌpeipəz.	ən 'ʌndəˈdʌn ˌdʒoint.

Two or more adjectives may precede the noun. In this case the one that particularizes most is placed first, and the second, which often suggests a category, is usually unstressed.

ə 'tʃaːmiŋ litǀ ˌhaus.	ə 'nais big ˌpiːs.
ə 'diər ould ˌleidi.	ə 'tʃiːki jʌŋ ˌboi.
ə 'greit big ˈhʌlkiŋ ˌfelu.	

118 Rear position—attributive. The adjective always follows the semi-pronouns of the sʌm-, eni-, nou-, evri- group.

'ðis iz ˈsʌmθiŋ ˌnjuː.	it s 'sʌmbodi imˈpoːtṇt.
iz ðər 'eniθiŋ ˊroŋ?	ðə z 'evriθiŋ ˌnesisri.
ðə z 'nʌθiŋ ˅difrṇt.	ðə z 'noubədi ˅feiməs.

In a certain number of collocations, mostly of an historcail, religious or official character, the adjective follows the noun that it qualifies:

'bodi ˋpolitik	'eidʒṇt ˋdʒenrǀ.
'gʌm ˋarəbik	'konsǀ ˋdʒenrǀ.
'prins ˋriːdʒṇt.	'envoi ikˋstroːdṇri.
'treʒə ˋtrouv	'ministə 'plenipuˋtenʃəri.
'biʃəp ˋdezignit.	'noutəri ˋpʌblik.

In a few special cases the adjective may follow the word qualified, but the style is rather literary:

'adʒiktivz ˌpropə.	'θiŋz dʒapəˌniːz.
'litritʃə ˈpjuər ən ˌsimpl.[1]	

In some cases the adjective (generally a pair of adjectives) is used semi-parenthetically, suggesting book-titles or items in a catalogue:

'edjuˌkeiʃṇ, intiˌlektʃuəl, ˌmorəl ən ˌfizikǀ.

ˌmeθədz, 'einʃṇt ən ˌmodən.

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[1] *"Pure and simple"* usually follows its noun, but its antithesis, *"common or garden,"* being essentially colloquial, always precedes its noun.

119 Rear position—predicative. Adjectives used as subject-complements follow the verb of incomplete predication:

> it s 'red.　　　　　　　　hi z 'oːlwiz getiŋ ˌaŋgri.

Adjectives used as object-complements follow the direct object:

> it 'meiks mi ˌtaiəd.　　　　ai 'peintid ðə 'doə ˌgriːn.
> 'get ði ˌʌðəz redi.

When accompanied by prepositional and certain other adjuncts, the adjective usually follows the word qualified:

> ə 'buk 'difik]t tə ˌriːd.　　　ə 'haus 'θriː ˙stoːriz ˌhai.
> ə 'peidʒ ˙toːn in 'tuː ˌpleisiz.　ə 'rivə 'wʌn ˙mail ˌwaid.
> ə 'buk 'juːsf] fə ˌsəːtŋ ˙pəːpəsiz.
> ə 'meθəd əv ˌwəːkiŋ 'haili rekəˌmendid bai ˌsʌm piːp].
> ə ˌsiːn 'tuː ˙wʌndəf] tə disˌkraib.
> 'oːl ˙sʌbdʒikts 'wəːði əv əˌtenʃŋ.

FUNCTIONS OF ADJECTIVES

120 Noun qualifiers. Adjectives are used as noun-qualifiers:

> ðə 'laːdʒ ˌboks.　　　　　ði 'iŋliʃ ˌlaŋgwidʒ.
> ə 'wait ˌhoːs.　　　　　　'intristiŋ igˌzaːmp]z.
> 'gud igˌzaːmp]z.　　　　　'spoukŋ ˌiŋgliʃ.
> mai 'njuː ˌhat.　　　　　　ə 'wel-bilt ˌhaus.
> 'ðouz ˙ould ʃuːz.

Two or more adjectives may be used together:

> ə 'greit ˙wait ˌboks.　　　'modən 'spoukŋ ˌiŋgliʃ.
> ən 'ould ˙wait ˌhaus.

121 Pronominals. The adjective is not used pronominally, but pronominal equivalents may be formed by adding the semi-pronoun wʌn:

> did ju ˌsei ðə 'red wʌn oː ðə ˌbluː wʌn?
> ˇðat s ə 'broukŋ wʌn.　　　'ðat ˌould wʌn.
> ə ˌmoust 'intristiŋ wʌn.　ju v 'broːt ðə 'roŋ 'wʌn!

122   Complements.   When used as subject-complements, adjectives are preceded by a verb of incomplete predication:

it s ˇred.   ðə ˇweðə z ˌkiːpiŋ ˌfaɪn.
it s 'getiŋ ˌdaːk.   it ˌluks ˇɪntristiŋ.
ai m 'getiŋ ˌbetə.   it wəz 'moust ʌnˌdʒʌst.

When used as object-complements, they are preceded by the direct object of causative verbs:

ai l 'get it ˌredi.   ðei 'rould ðə ˙graːs ˌsmuːð.
ai 'peintid ðə ˙doə ˌgriːn.   'kaːnt ju ˙meik it ˊlaːdʒə?
hi ˙kʌt mai ˙heə tuː ˌʃoːt.   'ðat s wot ˙meiks it sou ˇɪntristiŋ.

123   Nouns.   Adjectives are occasionally used as Plural Nouns, in which case they are generally preceded by the definite article:

ðə 'ritʃ ən ðə ˌpuə.   ðə 'liviŋ ən ðə ˌded.
ðə 'kild ne ˌwuːndid.

D. Verbs

FORMAL CLASSIFICATION

124 The two kinds of verb. Briefly defined, a verb is a word that asserts something about a person, animal or thing. It refers to an action or state of its subject, and through its tenses, moods and voices indicates the time, manner and incidence of its occurrence or non-occurrence.

In many languages the tenses are distinguished by a system of inflexions known as the "conjugation" of the verb, but in English they are almost always formed by placing one, two or three auxiliary verbs before the principal verb. Since it is usual to apply the same term "conjugation" to the various arrangements of auxiliaries that form the English tenses, it may be permissible and helpful to refer to these auxiliaries as *conjugators*. Further, since the function of the verb that is being conjugated is to specify the action or state of the subject of the sentence, it can be suitably referred to as the *specific* verb.

The conjugators form a small, closed, frequently-used class, while the specific verbs belong to a large, open series which is added to from time to time as the need arises.

125 The two kinds of verb forms. Although tenses are formed by the use of auxiliaries rather than inflexions, the English verb does retain certain variations in form, and the appropriate form must be used in constructing each tense. These forms fall into two main classes, and an understanding of the difference in function of these two classes is of the greatest value to the student. These two classes are known as the *finites* and the *verbals*.

Finites are the forms whose primary functions are to indicate affirmation or negation and to give the most exact indication of tense. Some of them also indicate number and person. Each tense structure contains one, and only one, finite, and when more than one verb form is used the finite is always the first of the group. It is also the form most closely linked to the subject.

Verbals are the infinitive, and the present and past participles of any verb. Though they have a subsidiary role in indicating tense they cannot form tenses by themselves.

126   Table of verb forms.   In the following table the verb forms are classified according to their functions.   Only the affirmative forms of the conjugating finites are shown ; otherwise the list of conjugators is complete.   For the specific verbs the irregular verb tə teik and the regular verb tə fil are shown as examples of all the others.

```
                                          ⎧ am, iz, aː, woz, wəː
                              ⎧           ⎪ hav, haz, had
                              ⎪ Temporals ⎨ duː, dʌz, did
                    ⎧ Finites ⎨           ⎩ juːst
                    ⎪         ⎪           ⎧ wil, ʃal, kan, mei
          ⎧ Conju- ⎨         ⎩ Modals    ⎨ mʌst, oːt, niːd, deə
          ⎪ gating ⎪                     ⎩ wud, ʃud, kud, mait
          ⎪        ⎪         ⎧ Infinitive    (tə) biː, (tə) hav
          ⎪        ⎩ Verbals ⎨ Pres. Part.   biːiŋ, (haviŋ)
 VERBS ⎨                     ⎩ Past Part.    biːn
          ⎪                  ⎧ Infinitive    (tə) teik      (tə) fil
          ⎪        ⎧ Verbals ⎨ Pres. Part.   teikiŋ         filiŋ
          ⎪        ⎪         ⎩ Past Part.    teikən         fild
          ⎩ Specific ⎨       ⎧ Pres. Tense   teik, teiks    fil, filz
                    ⎩ Finites ⎨ Past Tense   tuk            fild
                             ⎩ Imperative    teik           fil
```

Some of these forms act in more than one capacity, thus :

Conjugating finite :   hav haz had   duː dʌz did
Conjugating verbal :   hav
Specific verbal :   hav   had   duː
Specific finite :   hav haz had   duː dʌz did

It will be seen that in the case of the specific verbs the root form does duty in three separate capacities, and that in the case of the regular verbs the past form has a dual capacity.   The fact that in both these instances the same form functions either as a verbal or as a finite makes it more difficult for foreign students to grasp the English system of tense structure, but it can be mastered by studying the rules given in §153 and by remembering that in any cluster of

verb forms the first is a finite and all the others are verbals, the last one being the specific verbal.

THE SPECIFIC VERBS

127 Simple and derivative verbs. It is difficult, if not impossible, to draw a rigid line of demarcation between these two kinds of specific verb. For example, verbs such as kʌm, teik, tel are obviously simple and indecomposable, while verbs such as ʌndres, blakən, riːrait, formed from existing words by means of affixes which are more or less living, are clearly derivatives. Between these two extremes, however, we find verbs such as biliːv, fəgiv, əksept, which are in practice indecomposable, while others, such as mislei, disubei, aidentifai, formed from recognizable roots (many of which are modified in form or meaning) and more or less obsolete affixes cannot be considered as simple verbs and yet do not belong to the class of derivatives that may be built up synthetically.

128 One-word verbs. The following categories, ranging almost imperceptibly from one extreme to the other, will give some idea of the various formal characteristics of verbs.

a. biː, hav, kʌm, gou, teik, put, siː, spiːk, nou, sei, tel.

b. biˋliːv, biˋgrʌdʒ, biˋheiv, biˋloŋ.
    fəˋgiv, fəˋget, fəˋbid, fəˋseik.
    ˋpʌniʃ, ˋfiniʃ, ˋfəːniʃ, ˋpoliʃ, əsˋtoniʃ.
    fulˋfil, əˋweikən, etc.

c. əkˋsept, ədˋvaiz, əˋtatʃ.
    kəmˋpeə*, kəmˋpouz, kənˋfəːm, kəŋˋkluːd.
    əbˋdʒekt, əˋblaidʒ, əbˋzəːv.
    imˋpruːv, inˋlaːdʒ, inˋlist, inˋtend, inˋvait, iŋˋkʌridʒ, iŋˋkluːd.
    səbˋskraib, səˋdʒest, səˋpouz, səˋpoːt.
    riˋkʌvə, riˋsiːv, riˋfoːm, riˋpiːt.
    diˋkleə*, diˋtatʃ, diˋfend, diˋsiːv, diˋskraib.
    ikˋsiːd, ikˋspres, iksˋtʃeindʒ, igˋzamin.
    'intəˋrʌpt, 'intəˋfiə*, 'intrəˋdjuːs.
    priˋsiːd, priˋpeə*, priˋzəːv, priˋzjuːm.
    poustˋpoun, transˋfoːm, etc.

    d. ˋsəːtlˌfai, ˋkwoliˌfai, aiˋdentiˌfai, ˋgloːriˌfai, ˋsatisˌfai.
       ˋkʌltiˌveit, ˋheziˌteit, niˋsesiˌteit, ˋsepəˌreit.
       ˋkritiˌsaiz, ˋsiviˌlaiz, məˋtiəriəˌlaiz, ˋriəˌlaiz.
       'misbiˋheiv, 'misʌndəˋstand, misˋteik, misˋlei.
       'disbiˋliːv, 'disəˋpruːv, 'diskənˋtinju, disˋkʌvə, disˋkʌridʒ.

    e. 'ʌnˋduː, 'ʌnˋfaːsn̩, 'ʌnˋdres, 'ʌnˋluːs.[1]
       'riːˋrait, 'riːˋlait, 'riːəˋreindʒ.
       ˋfraitn̩, ˋwaitn̩, ˋbroːdn̩, ˋwaidn̩, ˋblakən.

Verbs used as nouns:

Certain verbs are indistinguishable in form from nouns. In some cases these appear to be words functioning usually as verbs but occasionally as nouns. Examples:

    ə ˋkʌt   = an incision made with a knife.
    ə ˋtʃeindʒ = an alteration.
    ə ˋpuʃ   = an impulse made by pressing.
    ə ˋdʒʌmp = a leap.
    ən ˋaːnsə* = a reply.

Nouns used as verbs:

In other cases they are words functioning usually as nouns but occasionally as verbs. An almost unlimited number of common nouns may be used as verbs. Examples:

    tə ˋtʃoːk = to write by means of chalk.
    tə ˋpeipə* = to cover (a wall) by means of paper.
    tu əˋdres = to write an address on an envelope.
    tə ˋbotl̩   = to put into a bottle.
    tə ˋbrʌʃ   = to use a brush.

Historic compounds:

Verbs such as 'ʌndəˋstand, 'ʌndəˋteik, 'ʌndəˋgou, wiðˋdroː, wiθˋhould, ʌpˋhould, ʌpˋset, are sometimes said to be compound. This method of composition being now obsolete, all such verbs should be treated as if they were simple.

129   Group verbs. An almost unlimited number of "group-verbs" may be formed by collocations of the simpler (generally

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[1] In this verb ʌn- is not a negative.

monosyllabic) verbs with the adverbial particles in, aut, əwei, bak, etc.   (See Adverbial Particles, §279.)

In addition to these, it is often convenient to consider as group-verbs :

a.   Combinations of biː and certain adjectives, in that such combinations are often semantically equivalent to simple (but often less-used) verbs :

bi `eibl	= kan.	bi `glad ⎫	
bi `sori	= ri`gret	bi `pliːzd ⎭	= ri`dʒois.

b.   Combinations of various verbs with various complements, in that such combinations are often semantically equivalent to simple (but often less-used) verbs :

'hav ə `rest	= `rest.	'meik `prougres	= pru`gres.
'hav `brekfəst.	= `brekfəst.	'meik `heist	= `hʌri.
'hav `lʌntʃ	= `lʌntʃ	'pei ə`tenʃn	= ə`tend
'hav ə `driŋk	= `driŋk	'teik `keə*	= `maind.
'hav ə `geim	= `plei.	'gou fər ə `woːk	= `woːk

c.   Combinations of verb + preposition, in that such combinations may be equivalent to simple (but often rarer or obsolete) verbs :

ri`plai tu	= `aːnsə*	`luk at	= ri`gaːd, kən`sidə*
`weit foː	= ə`weit	`luk foː	= `siːk

130   Verb inflexions.   With the exception of the verb tə biː (dealt with in detail in §§154-5) English verbs have a maximum of five different forms, which are :

1.   The root form, used in three different ways :

   a.   for the Infinitive—a verbal,

   b.   for all persons except the 3rd pers. sing. in the Affirmative of the Present Tense of Accomplishment—a finite,

   c.   for the Affirmative of the Imperative of Accomplishment —a finite.

2.   The past tense form, used for all persons in the Affirmative of the Past Tense of Accomplishment—a finite.

3.   The past participle form—a verbal.

4. The s-form, used for the 3rd pers. sing. in the Affirmative of the Present Tense of Accomplishment—a finite.

5. The present participle or ing-form—a verbal.

The following table shows these five forms for some typical specific verbs. The first five are irregular verbs and the last three are regular ones.

1	2	3	4	5
Root	*Past Tense*	*Past Part.*	*s-form*	*ing-form*
(*V or F*)	(*Finite*)	(*Verbal*)	(*Finite*)	(*Verbal*)
raiz	rouz	ˋrizṇ	ˋraiziz	ˋraiziŋ
teik	tuk	ˋteikən	teiks	ˋteikiŋ
bai	boːt	boːt	baiz	ˋbaiiŋ
kost	kost	kost	kosts	ˋkostiŋ
sel	sould	sould	selz	ˋseliŋ
kaunt	ˋkauntid	ˋkauntid	kaunts	ˋkauntiŋ
kros	krost	krost	ˋkrosiz	ˋkrosiŋ
əˋgriː	əˋgriːd	əˋgriːd	əˋgriːz	əˋgriːiŋ

131   The two regular inflexions. With the minor exceptions noted below, the ing-form and the s-form are regular in all verbs.

The ing-form.

In a few words ending in a consonant $+|$, the $|$ is replaced by I in the ing-form, e.g., ˋpʌz|, ˋpʌzliŋ ; ˋkeib|, ˋkeibliŋ.

In verbs spelt with a final -r or -re, the r consonant is mute in the root form but is pronounced before the initial i of the ing-form. Such verbs as beə, ˋbeəriŋ ; hiə, ˋhiəriŋ ; ˋofə, ˋofəriŋ, may therefore be said to form this verbal by adding -riŋ to the root, while all other verbs form it regularly by adding -iŋ.

The s-form.

Apart from the verb tə biː shown in §126, only three verbs in the language show any real irregularity in forming this finite. They are: duː, hav and sei, which have the forms dʌz, haz and sez respectively. In all other verbs, whether regular or irregular in other respects, the s-form follows the rules given in §§140–5.

The above points having been placed on record, these two forms can be ignored when the irregular verbs are under consideration.

IRREGULAR VERBS

132 The two irregular inflexions. The irregular verbs con-
stitute the most important survival from the older, inflected, stage
in the development of English. Apart from the two small groups
mentioned in §131, the irregularities are confined to the following
two forms.

The past participle.

This verbal is formed irregularly in the case of some 150 verbs.

The past tense.

This finite is irregular in almost exactly the same number of
verbs.

The phonetic irregularities occurring in these two forms can be
arranged in a three-tier system. This method of classification is
explained below, and lists are given of all the important verbs in
each class.

133 Classification of irregularities. Irregular verbs fall into
two main divisions:

I. Those whose past participle ends in a consonant other than
t or **d**, and in most cases differs from the past tense.

II. Those whose past tense and past participle end in **t** or **d**
and are always identical.

Division I

The verbs of Division I may be divided into two classes:

A. Verbs in which the past participle is formed by adding a
  a nasal consonant (occasionally preceded by the vowel ə)
  to either the present or the past tense form or some
  other form, and

B. Verbs to which no nasal consonant is added to form the
  past participle.

Each of these classes may be further subdivided according to
the root vowel variations. The figures at the head of the following
tables indicate the vowel systems and are to be interpreted as
follows:

1—2—3 all three parts have different vowels.

1—2—1 the infinitive and past participle have one vowel, and the past tense another.

1—1—2 the infinitive and past tense have one vowel, and the past participle another.

1—2—2 the infinitive has one vowel, and the past tense and past participle another.

1—1—1 all three parts have the same vowel.

134 Division I, Class A. A nasal consonant is added to form the past participle.

1	2	3
duː	did	dʌn
gou	went	gon
flai	fluː	floun
rait	rout	ˋritṇ
raid	roud	ˋridṇ
draiv	drouv	ˋdrivṇ
raiz	rouz	ˋrizṇ

1	2	1
iːt	et *or* eit	ˋiːtṇ
fəˋbid	fəˋbad, fəˋbeid	fəˋbidṇ
giv	geiv	ˋgivṇ
fəˋgiv	fəˋgeiv	fəˋgivṇ
foːl	fel	ˋfoːlən
teik	tuk	ˋteikən
ʃeik	ʃuk	ˋʃeikən
siː	soː	siːn
droː	druː	droːn
blou	bluː	bloun
grou	gruː	groun
nou	njuː	noun
θrou	θruː	θroun

1	1	2
swel	sweld	swoulən[1]

[1] Occasionally sweld.

1	2	2
bait	bit	ˋbitṇ
haid	hid	ˋhidṇ
fəˋget	fəˋgot	fəˋgotṇ
spiːk	spouk	ˋspoukən
stiːl	stoul	ˋstoulən
wiːv	wouv	ˋwouvṇ
friːz	frouz	ˋfrouzṇ
tʃuːz	tʃouz	ˋtʃouzṇ
weik	wouk	ˋwoukən
breik	brouk	ˋbroukən
beə*	boə*	boːn
teə*	toə*	toːn
weə*	woə*	woːn
sweə*	swoə*	swoːn
lai	lei	lein[1]

1	1	1
biːt	biːt	ˋbiːtṇ
soː	soːd	soːn
sou	soud	soun[2]
ʃou	ʃoud	ʃoun

135 Division I, Class B. No nasal consonant is added to form the past participle.

1	2	3
swim	swam	swʌm
biˋgin	biˋgan	biˋgʌn
riŋ	raŋ	rʌŋ
siŋ	saŋ	sʌŋ
spriŋ	spraŋ	sprʌŋ
siŋk	saŋk	sʌŋk
ʃriŋk	ʃraŋk	ʃrʌŋk
driŋk	draŋk	drʌŋk

[1] This word, given for the sake of reference, is rarely used in spoken English. It can usually be replaced by biːn or biːn ˋlaiiŋ.

[2] Meaning both the verb *sow* (to plant seed), and the verb spelt *sew* (to work with a needle).

1	2	1
kʌm	keim	kʌm
rʌn	ran	rʌn
biˋkʌm	biˋkeim	biˋkʌm

1	2	2
ʃain	ʃon	ʃon
haŋ	hʌŋ	hʌŋ
spin	spʌn	spʌn
win	wʌn	wʌn
stiŋ	stʌŋ	stʌŋ
swiŋ	swʌŋ	swʌŋ
dig	dʌg	dʌg
stik	stʌk	stʌk
straik	strʌk	strʌk

Division II

The verbs of Division II may be divided into three classes:

A. Verbs in which **t** or **d** is substituted for some other consonant,

B. Verbs in which **t** or **d**, already present in the root form, is retained in the past, and

C. Verbs in which **t** or **d** is added to the root to form the past.

Here also the classes are subdivided according to the root vowel variations, but since the two past forms are identical only the last two vowel systems can occur.

136   Division II, Class A.   Substitution of **t** or **d** to make the common past form.

1	2	2
katʃ	koːt	koːt
tiːtʃ	toːt	toːt
briŋ	broːt	broːt
θiŋk	θoːt	θoːt
bai	boːt	boːt
fait[1]	foːt	foːt

[1] This Class B verb is inserted here for orthographic reasons.

1	1	1
bild	bilt	bilt
bend	bent	bent
lend	lent	lent
send	sent	sent
spend	spent	spent
hav	had	had
meik	meid	meid

137   Division II, Class B.   Retention of an existing t or d in making the common past form.

1	2	2
miːt	met	met
sit	sat	sat
spit	spat	spat
get	got	got
ʃuːt	ʃot	ʃot
lait	lit	lit
fiːd	fed	fed
liːd	led	led
riːd	red	red
bliːd	bled	bled
spiːd	sped	sped
hould	held	held
slaid	slid	slid
stand	stud	stud
'ʌndə'stand	'ʌndə'stud	'ʌndə'stud
baind	baund	baund
faind	faund	faund
graind	graund	graund
waind	waund	waund

1	1	1
hit	hit	hit
split	split	split
let	let	let
set	set	set
ʌp'set	ʌp'set	ʌp'set
put	put	put

1	1	1
kʌt	kʌt	kʌt
ʃʌt	ʃʌt	ʃʌt
həːt	həːt	həːt
kaːst	kaːst	kaːst
kost	kost	kost
bəːst	bəːst	bəːst
rid	rid	rid
spred	spred	spred

138   Division II, Class C.   Addition of **t** or **d** to make the common past form.

1	2	2	
kriːp	krept	krept	
kiːp	kept	kept	
sliːp	slept	slept	
swiːp	swept	swept	
driːm	dremt	dremt	(r)
liːn	lent	lent	(r)
miːn	ment	ment	
diːl	delt	delt	
fiːl	felt	felt	
niːl	nelt	nelt	
liːv	left	left	
luːz	lost	lost	
sel	sould	sould	
tel	tould	tould	
hiə*	həːd	həːd	
sei	sed	sed	
ʃuː	ʃod	ʃod	

1	1	1	
spil	spilt	spilt	(r)
smel	smelt	smelt	(r)
spel	spelt	spelt	(r)
spoil	spoilt	spoilt	(r)
bəːn	bəːnt	bəːnt	(r)
ləːn	ləːnt	ləːnt	(r)

Verbs marked (r) may also be conjugated regularly.

REGULAR VERBS

139 Six classes. In regular verbs the past tense form (finite) and the past participle form (verbal) are identical. In the written language this common past form is made by adding -d or -ed to the root, while the s-form is made by adding -s or -es, also to the root.

In the spoken language, however, each of these terminations is pronounced in three different ways in order that it may harmonize with the final sound of the root form of each verb. This gives rise to six classes of regular verbs.

As it is obviously impossible to list and classify all the specific verbs in the English language, a representative selection has been made, based on a 2,000-word frequency list.

In the following tables about 300 of the most frequently used regular verbs are shown in their respective classes. The exact pronunciation of the two terminations is explained and examples are given at the head of each list. All the verbs in each list are inflected in exactly the same way as the specimen verbs, and all regular verbs with the same root ending take the same terminations.

140 Class Ia. Addition of -id to make the common past form.
,,   ,, -s ,,   ,,   ,,   s-form.

In these verbs the root always ends in -t.

Example:	Root form	Past form		S-form
	ək'sept	ək'septid		ək'septs
ə'kaunt	'kaunt	'opəreit	ri'leit	səs'pekt
'akt	di'fiːt	'peint	ri'piːt	'test
əd'mit	di'rekt	'paːt	ri'poːt	'triːt
ə'dopt	'daut	pə'mit	'repri'zent	'vizit
ə'maunt	i'lekt	'point	'rest	'vout
ə'point	ig'zist	'poust	ri'zʌlt	'weit
ə'tempt	ik'spekt	pri'zent	'sepəreit	'wont
ə'trakt	'fit	pri'vent	'ʃaut	
kə'lekt	'lift	'print	'steit	
kəm'pliːt	'limit	prə'tekt	sə'dʒest	
kə'nekt	'nout	ri'flekt	sə'poːt	

141 Class 1b. Addition of -id to make the common past form.

,,   ,,   -z ,,   ,,   ,, s-form.

In these verbs the root always ends in -d.

Example :	*Root form*	*Past form*	*S-form*
	ˈad	ˈadid	ˈadz
əˈfoːd	diˈfend	iksˈtend	prəˈvaid	səˈraund
əˈtend	diˈmaːnd	iŋˈkluːd	riˈkoːd	ˈtend
əˈvoid	diˈpend	inˈtend	riˈgaːd	ˈwuːnd
kəˈmaːnd	diˈsend	ˈland	riˈmaind	ˈjiːld
ˈkraud	diˈvaid	ˈmend	ˈsaund	
diˈsaid	ˈhand	ˈniːd	səkˈsiːd	

142 Class 2a. Addition of -t to make the common past form.

,,   ,,   -iz ,,   ,,   ,, s-form.

In these verbs the root ends in -s or -ʃ.

Examples :	*Root form*	*Past form*	*S-form*
	əˈdres	əˈdrest	əˈdresiz
	ˈfiniʃ	ˈfiniʃt	ˈfiniʃiz
ədˈvaːns	disˈtiŋgwiʃ	ˈintrəˈdjuːs	ˈpraktis	ˈrʌʃ
əsˈtoniʃ	ˈdres	ˈmis	ˈpres	ˈstretʃ
ˈbeis	iksˈpres	ˈnoutis	prəˈdjuːs	ˈtʌtʃ
ˈbles	ˈfiks	ˈpaːs	ˈpromis	ˈwoʃ
kənˈfes	ˈfoːs	ˈpleis	ˈpuʃ	ˈwotʃ
ˈkros	ˈfəːniʃ	ˈpoliʃ	ˈriːtʃ	ˈwiʃ
disˈkʌs	iŋˈkriːs	pəˈzes	riˈdjuːs	

143 Class 2b. Addition of -t to make the common past form.

,,   ,,   -s ,,   ,,   ,, s-form.

In these verbs the root ends in -p, -k, -f or -θ.

Examples :	*Root form*	*Past form*	*S-form*
	ˈdrop	ˈdropt	ˈdrops
	ˈaːsk	ˈaːskt	ˈaːsks
	ˈlaːf	ˈlaːft	ˈlaːfs
	ˈbaːθ	ˈbaːθt	ˈbaːθs

ˈeik	ˈhelp	ˈmaːk	ˈslip	ˈwəːk
əˈtak	ˈhoup	ˈpak	ˈstop	ˈkof
diˈveləp	ˈdʒʌmp	ˈpik	ˈtoːk	
isˈkeip	ˈluk	riˈmaːk	ˈwoːk	

144   Class 3a. Addition of -d to make the common past form.

           „   „ -iz „   „   „ s-form.

In these verbs the root ends in -z or -ʒ.

Examples:	*Root form*	*Past form*	*S-form*	
	əˈkjuːz	əˈkjuːzd	əˈkjuːziz	
	əˈreindʒ	əˈreindʒd	əˈreindʒiz	
ˈadvəˌtaiz	ˈtʃaːdʒ	ˈeksəˌsaiz	prəˈpouz	səˈpouz
ədˈvaiz	ˈsiviˌlaiz	ˈdʒʌdʒ	ˈreiz	səˈpraiz
əˈmjuːz	ˈklouz	ˈmanidʒ	ˈrekəgˌnaiz	ˈəːdʒ
ˈkoːz	kəmˈpouz	əˈpouz	riˈfjuːz	ˈjuːz
ˈtʃeindʒ	iŋˈkʌridʒ	ˈpliːz	ˈsiːz	

145   Class 3b. Addition of -d to make the common past form.

           „   „ -z „   „   „ s-form.

This is by far the largest class, containing nearly half the examples in these lists. The root ends in b, g, m, n, ŋ, l, v, ð, or any vowel.

Examples:

Root form	*Past form*	*S-form*	*Root form*	*Past form*	*S-form*
ˈrʌb	ˈrʌbd	ˈrʌbz	ˈberi	ˈberid	ˈberiz
ˈbeg	ˈbegd	ˈbegz	ˈaːgju	ˈaːgjud	ˈaːgjuz
ˈeim	ˈeimd	ˈeimz	ˈaːnsə*	ˈaːnsəd	ˈaːnsəz
ˈkliːn	ˈkliːnd	ˈkliːnz	ˈpei	ˈpeid	ˈpeiz
biˈloŋ	biˈloŋd	biˈloŋz	ˈflou	ˈfloud	ˈflouz
ˈboil	ˈboild	ˈboilz	əˈplai	əˈplaid	əˈplaiz
əˈpruːv	əˈpruːvd	əˈpruːvz	əˈlau	əˈlaud	əˈlauz
ˈbriːð	ˈbriːðd	ˈbriːðz	əˈnoi	əˈnoid	əˈnoiz
əˈkʌstəm	kənˈsidə*	ˈfoːm	ˈoːdə*		ˈsiːm
ədˈmaiə*	kənˈtein	ˈgein	ˈou		ˈsəːv
əˈgriː	kənˈtinju	ˈgaðə*	ˈoun		ˈsetl

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ə`plai	kən`troul	`gʌvən	pə`fɔːm	`ʃeə*
`aːm	`kʌvə*	`hand|	`plan	`sain
ə`raiv	`krai	`hapən	`plei	`smail
bi`heiv	di`kleə*	i`madʒin	`poə*	`stei
bi`liːv	di`livə*	im`pruːv	pri`fə*	`strʌgl
`bleim	dis`kraib	in`fɔːm	pri`peə*	`stʌdi
`boru	di`zəːv	`dʒoin	pri`zəːv	`sʌfə*
`koːl	dis`troi	`kil	`pruːv	sə`plai
`keə*	di`təːmin	`lel	`pul	`θretn̩
`kari	`dai	`lisn̩	ri`siːv	`tai
`tʃlə*	dis`kʌvə*	`liv	ri`fəː*	`taiə*
`kleim	`əːn	`lʌv	ri`mein	`trein
`kliə*	im`ploi	'manju`faktʃə*	ri`membə*	`travl|
`klaim	in`dʒoi	`mari	ri`plai	`trai
`klouð	`entə*	`meʒə*	ri`taiə*	`təːn
`kʌlə*	iks`plein	`muːv	ri`təːn	`wei
kəm`bain	`feil	`neim	`roul	`welkəm
kəm`peə*	`fiə*	əb`zəːv	`seiv	`wondə*
kəm`plein	`fil	`ofə*	`seil	`wʌndə*
kən`səːn	`folu	`oupən	`skatə*	`wɔːn

THE CONJUGATORS

146 Conjugating finites.   There are 24 conjugating finites, of which 12 may be said to be tense-formers (or temporals) and 12 mood-formers (or modals).   The temporals simply indicate the precise tense of the specific verb before which they are used, while the modals indicate the mood or manner of the action.

Each of the 24 conjugating finites has two forms, an affirmative one and a negative one, the latter being characterized by the termination n̩t (used when this termination is preceded by a consonant) or nt (used after vowels).   The substitution of the negative form for the affirmative one is the commonest way of introducing the idea of negation into a sentence, and by their position the forms indicate interrogation—being placed before the subject in questions and after it in statements.   They are thus the agents by which the four forms of the sentence are indicated: Affirmative, Negative, Interrogative and Interrogative-Negative.

The following is a table of the 24 conjugating finites, showing both affirmative and negative forms.

Temporals		Modals	
Affirmative	Negative	Affirmative	Negative
am	aːnt	wil	wount
iz	iznt	ʃal	ʃaːnt
aː*	aːnt	kan	kaːnt
woz	woznt	mei	meint
wəː*	wəːnt	mʌst	mʌsnt
hav	havnt	oːt (tə)	oːtnt (tə)
haz	haznt	niːd	niːdnt
had	hadnt	deə*	deənt
duː	dount	wud	wudnt
dʌz	dʌznt	ʃud	ʃudnt
did	didnt	kud	kudnt
juːst (tə)	juːsnt (tə)	mait	maitnt

The pronunciations shown above are the strong ones, as used when the words are pronounced stressed or in isolation. In ordinary contexts most of the affirmative finites have weak forms. These are shown in detail in §16.

The infinitive that follows juːst, juːsnt, oːt or oːtnt is always preceded by tə (or tu if its first sound is a vowel). It is also usual to add tu when these finites are not followed by a specific verbal.

147 Conjugating verbals. There are four conjugating verbals that help the conjugating finites to form the more compound tenses of specific verbs. They always occupy a medial position in the verb cluster, since they follow the conjugating finite and precede the specific verbal. There is, in addition, one conjugating verbal (haviŋ) that does not enter into the formation of tenses, occurring only in participial phrases.

The five conjugating verbals are:

Infinitive	Present Participle	Past Participle
(tə) biː	biːiŋ	biːn
(tə) hav	(haviŋ)	——

Below are shown examples of the use of the conjugating verbals in each of the tenses in which they occur. It will be seen that in some tenses two conjugating verbals are used. The numbers refer to the tense numbers given in §209.

Active Voice

	Tense No.	Example
biː	A 9	ai ˈʃaːnt bi ˌsteiiŋ.
biːn	A 10	ˈhavn̩t ju bin ˈlisniŋ tə mi?
	A 11	ʃi d bin ˈrestiŋ bi͵foː ˌlʌntʃ.
hav	A 6	wi ʃl əv ˈfiniʃt bai tə͵nait.
hav biːn	A 12	ai ˈmust əv bin ˈdriːmiŋ.

Passive Voice

biː	P 3	wi ˈʃaːnt bi inˈvaitid tə ðə ˌpaːti.
biːiŋ	P 7	wi ə ˈbiːiŋ ˌwotʃt.
	P 8	ðə ˈletə wəz biːiŋ traːnsˈleitid.
biːn	P 4	ðə ˈruːm ˈhazn̩t bin ˈkliːnd tə͵dei.
	P 5	ˈhadn̩t ju bin ˈwoːnd əbaut it?
hav biːn	P 6	ðə ˈhaus ˈmei əv bin ˈlet oːl͵redi.

Active Participial Phrase:

haviŋ	haviŋ ˈfiniʃt iz ͵wəːk, hi ˈwent ˌhoum.

Passive Participial Phrases:

biːiŋ	biːiŋ ˈteikən bai sə͵praiz, ðei riˈtriːtid.
haviŋ biːn	haviŋ bin ˈtould tə ͵weit, ai ˈweitid.

For the reasons set forth in §173 the tense classification adopted in the present work recognizes twelve tenses in the active voice and eight in the passive, or alternatively, twelve in the aspect of accomplishment and eight in the aspect of activity (see §207). The names and numbers that will be used to distinguish these tenses are given in §209. The manner in which they are constructed by varying the form and arrangement of the conjugators and the variations that are used to differentiate the affirmative, interrogative, negative and interrogative-negative forms of the sentence are tabulated in §§148–151, while the emphatic affirmative is shown in §152. For the sake of clarity the tenses are exemplified only in the 3rd person plural, but all the changes made inside each tense for the other persons are shown below each table.

148 Affirmative conjugation.

Active Voice

	Accomplishment			Activity	
A			Direct		A
1	ðei ˈteik		Present	ðei ə ˈteikiŋ	7
2	ðei ˈtuk		Past	ðei wə ˈteikiŋ	8
3	ðei l ˈteik		Modal	ðei l bi ˈteikiŋ	9
A			Perfect		A
4	ðei v ˈteikən		Present	ðei v bin ˈteikiŋ	10
5	ðei d ˈteikən		Past	ðei d bin ˈteikiŋ	11
6	ðei l əv ˈteikən		Modal	ðei l əv bin ˈteikiŋ	12

Irregularities:

A 1   hiː (ʃiː, it) ˈteiks.
A 4   hiː (ʃiː) z ˈteikən; it s ˈteikən.
A 7   ai m ˈteikiŋ; hiː (ʃiː) z ˈteikiŋ; it s ˈteikiŋ.
A 8   ai (hiː ʃiː, it) wəz ˈteikiŋ.
A 10   hi; (ʃiː) z bin ˈteikiŋ; it s bin ˈteikiŋ.

Passive Voice

	Accomplishment			Activity	
P			Direct		P
1	ðei ə ˈteikən		Present	ðei ə biːiŋ ˈteikən	7
2	ðei wə ˈteikən		Past	ðei wə biːiŋ ˈteikən	8
3	ðei l bi ˈteikən		Modal	Not used	9
P			Perfect		P
4	ðei v bin ˈteikən		Present	Not used	10
5	ðei d bin ˈteikən		Past	Not used	11
6	ðei l əv bin ˈteikən		Modal	Not used	12

Irregularities:

P 1   ai m ˈteikən; hiː (ʃiː) z ˈteikən; it s ˈteikən.
P 2   ai (hiː, ʃiː, it) wəz ˈteikən.
P 4   hiː (ʃiː) z bin ˈteikən; it s bin ˈteikən.
P 7   ai m biːiŋ ˈteikən; hiː (ʃiː) z biːiŋ ˈteikən; it s biːiŋ ˈteikən.
P 8   ai (hiː, ʃiː, it) wəz biːiŋ ˈteikən.

149   Interrogative conjugation.

<div align="center"><i>Active Voice</i></div>

	<i>Accomplishment</i>		<i>Activity</i>	
A		<i>Direct</i>		A
1	də ðei 'teik ?	Present	ə ðei 'teikiŋ ?	7
2	did ðei 'teik ?	Past	wə ðei 'teikiŋ ?	8
3	wil ðei 'teik ?	Modal	wil ðei bi 'teikiŋ ?	9
A		<i>Perfect</i>		A
4	həv ðei 'teikən ?	Present	həv ðei bin 'teikiŋ ?	10
5	həd ðei 'teikən ?	Past	həd ðei bin 'teikiŋ ?	11
6	wil ðei əv 'teikən ?	Modal	wil ðei əv bin 'teikiŋ ?	12

<i>Irregularities :</i>

A 1   dəz hiː (ʃiː, it) 'teik ?
A 4   həz hiː (ʃiː, it) 'teikən ?
A 7   əm ai 'teikiŋ ?   iz hiː (ʃiː, it) 'teikiŋ ?
A 8   wəz ai (hiː, ʃiː, it) 'teikiŋ ?
A 10   həz hiː (ʃiː, it) bin 'teikiŋ ?

<div align="center"><i>Passive Voice</i></div>

	<i>Accomplishment</i>		<i>Activity</i>	
P		<i>Direct</i>		P
1	ə ðei 'teikən ?	Present	ə ðei biːiŋ 'teikən ?	7
2	wə ðei 'teikən ?	Past	wə ðei biːiŋ 'teikən ?	8
3	wil ðei bi 'teikən ?	Modal	Not used	9
P		<i>Perfect</i>		P
4	həv ðei bin 'teikən ?	Present	Not used	10
5	həd ðei bin 'teikən ?	Past	Not used	11
6	wil ðei əv bin 'teikən ?	Modal	Not used	12

<i>Irregularities :</i>

P 1   əm ai 'teikən ?   iz hiː (ʃiː, it) 'teikən ?
P 2   wəz ai (hiː, ʃiː, it) 'teikən ?
P 4   həz hiː (ʃiː, it) bin 'teikən ?
P 7   əm ai biːiŋ 'teikən ?   iz hiː (ʃiː, it) biːiŋ 'teikən ?
P 8   wəz ai (hiː, ʃiː, it) biːiŋ 'teikən ?

<div align="center">116</div>

150 Negative conjugation.

Active Voice

	Accomplishment		Activity	
A		Direct		A
1	ðei 'dount ˋteik	Present	ðei 'aːnt ˋteikiŋ	7
2	ðei 'didṇt ˋteik	Past	ðei 'wəːnt ˋteikiŋ	8
3	ðei 'wount ˋteik	Modal	ðei 'wount bi ˋteikiŋ	9

		Perfect		
A				A
4	ðei 'havṇt ˋteikən	Present	ðei 'havṇt bin ˋteikiŋ	10
5	ðei 'hadṇt ˋteikən	Past	ðei 'hadṇt bin ˋteikiŋ	11
6	ðei 'wount əv ˋteikən	Modal	ðei 'wount əv bin ˋteikiŋ	12

Irregularities:

> A 1 hiː (ʃiː, it) 'dʌzṇt ˋteik.
> A 4 hiː (ʃiː, it) 'hazṇt ˋteikən.
> A 7 ai m 'not ˋteikiŋ; hiː (ʃiː, it) 'izṇt ˋteikiŋ.
> A 8 ai (hiː, ʃiː, it) 'wozṇt ˋteikiŋ.
> A 10 hiː (ʃiː, it) 'hazṇt bin ˋteikiŋ.

Passive Voice

	Accomplishment		Activity	
P		Direct		P
1	ðei 'aːnt ˋteikən	Present	ðei 'aːnt biːiŋ ˋteikən	7
2	ðei 'wəːnt ˋteikən	Past	ðei 'wəːnt biːiŋ ˋteikən	8
3	ðei 'wount bi ˋteikən	Modal	Not used	9

		Perfect		
P				P
4	ðei 'havṇt bin ˋteikən	Present	Not used	10
5	ðei 'hadṇt bin ˋteikən	Past	Not used	11
6	ðei 'wount əv bin ˋteikən	Modal	Not used	12

Irregularities:

> P 1 ai m 'not ˋteikən; hiː (ʃiː, it) 'izṇt ˋteikən.
> P 2 ai (hiː, ʃiː, it) 'wozṇt ˋteikən.
> P 4 hiː (ʃiː, it) 'hazṇt bin ˋteikən.
> P 7 ai m 'not biːiŋ ˋteikən; hiː (ʃiː, it) 'izṇt biːiŋ ˋteikən.
> P 8 ai (hiː, ʃiː, it) 'wozṇt biːiŋ ˋteikən.

151   Interrogative-negative conjugation.

Active Voice

	Accomplishment			Activity	
A			*Direct*		A
1	'dount ðei 'teik?		Present	'aːnt ðei 'teikiŋ?	7
2	'didṇt ðei 'teik?		Past	'wəːnt ðei 'teikiŋ?	8
3	'wount ðei 'teik?		Modal	'wount ðei bi 'teikiŋ?	9
A			*Perfect*		A
4	'havṇt ðei 'teikən?		Present	'havṇt ðei bin 'teikiŋ?	10
5	'hadṇt ðei 'teikən?		Past	'hadṇt ðei bin 'teikiŋ?	11
6	'wount ðei əv 'teikən?		Modal	'wount ðei əv bin 'teikiŋ?	12

Irregularities:

A 1   'dʌzṇt hiː (ʃiː, it) 'teik?
A 4   'hazṇt hiː (ʃiː, it) 'teikən?
A 7   'izṇt hiː (ʃiː, it) 'teikiŋ?
A 8   'wozṇt ai (hiː, ʃiː, it) 'teikiŋ?
A 10 'hazṇt hiː (ʃiː, it) bin 'teikiŋ?

Passive Voice

	Accomplishment			Activity	
P			*Direct*		P
1	'aːnt ðei 'teikən?		Present	'aːnt ðei biːiŋ 'teikən?	7
2	'wəːnt ðei 'teikən?		Past	'wəːnt ðei biːiŋ 'teikən?	8
3	'wount ðei bi 'teikən?		Modal	Not used	9
P			*Perfect*		P
4	'havṇt ðei bin 'teikən?		Present	Not used	10
5	'hadṇt ðei bin 'teikən?		Past	Not used	11
6	'wount ðei əv bin 'teikən?		Modal	Not used	12

Irregularities:

P 1   'izṇt hiː (ʃiː, it) 'teikən?
P 2   'wozṇt ai (hiː, ʃiː, it) 'teikən?
P 4   'hazṇt hiː (ʃiː, it) bin 'teikən?
P 7   'izṇt hiː (ʃiː, it) biːiŋ 'teikən?
P 8   'wozṇt ai (hiː, ʃiː, it) biːiŋ 'teikən?

152 Emphatic affirmative conjugation.

Active Voice

	Accomplishment			Activity	
A			*Direct*		A
1	ðei ˈduː ˌteik		Present	ðei ˈaː ˌteikiŋ	7
2	ðei ˈdid ˌteik		Past	ðei ˈwəː ˌteikiŋ	8
3	ðei ˈwil ˌteik		Modal	ðei ˈwil bi ˌteikiŋ	9

A			*Perfect*		A
4	ðei ˈhav ˌteikən		Present	ðei ˈhav bin ˌteikiŋ	10
5	ðei ˈhad ˌteikən		Past	ðei ˈhad bin ˌteikiŋ	11
6	ðei ˈwil əv ˌteikən		Modal	ðei ˈwil əv bin ˌteikiŋ	12

Irregularities:

A 1 hiː (ʃiː, it) ˈdʌz ˌteik.

A 4 hiː (ʃiː, it) ˈhaz ˌteikən.

A 7 ai ˈam ˌteikiŋ; hiː (ʃiː, it) ˈiz ˌteikiŋ.

A 8 ai (hiː, ʃiː, it) ˈwoz ˌteikiŋ.

A 10 hiː (ʃiː, it) ˈhaz bin ˌteikiŋ.

Passive Voice

	Accomplishment			Activity	
P			*Direct*		P
1	ðei ˈaː ˌteikən		Present	ðei ˈaː biːiŋ ˌteikən	7
2	ðei ˈwəː ˌteikən		Past	ðei ˈwəː biːiŋ ˌteikən	8
3	ðei ˈwil bi ˌteikən		Modal	Not used	9

P			*Perfect*		P
4	ðei ˈhav bin ˌteikən		Present	Not used	10
5	ðei ˈhad bin ˌteikən		Past	Not used	11
6	ðei ˈwil əv bin ˌteikən		Modal	Not used	12

Irregularities:

P 1 ai ˈam ˌteikən; hiː (ʃiː, it) ˈiz ˌteikən.

P 2 ai (hiː, ʃiː, it) ˈwoz ˌteikən.

P 4 hiː (ʃiː, it) ˈhaz bin ˌteikən.

P 7 ai ˈam biːiŋ ˌteikən; hiː (ʃiː, it) ˈiz biːiŋ ˌteikən.

P 8 ai (hiː, ʃiː, it) ˈwoz biːiŋ ˌteikən.

153   Rules of tense structure.   As is shown in §158, certain verb forms act sometimes as finites and sometimes as verbals.   This tends to disguise the regularity of the English system of tense structure, but it is possible to draw up a guide which will facilitate identification of the various elements used in constructing tenses.

1. If a tense in a full sentence consists of only one verb form this must be a specific finite or a finite of the verb **tə biː** used as a verb of incomplete predication (§155).

2. If a tense consists of more than one verb form the first of these is always a conjugating finite.   This is placed before the subject in questions and after it in statements.

3. The commonest way of adding the idea of negation to a sentence, whether question or statement, is to use the negative finite instead of the affirmative one, but if negation is added in any other way (by means of a negative subject, object or adverb) the affirmative finite must be used.   (See §§351–7.)

4. Any verb forms occupying a medial position are conjugating verbals.   There are never more than two of these.

5. The last verb form is always a specific verbal.

6. Verb forms that follow a part of the conjugating verb **tə biː** are governed by the following rules:

a. In the Active Voice the parts of the verb **tə biː** are used as conjugators only in the Aspect of Activity, and are always followed by the present participle.

b. In the Passive Voice, Aspect of Accomplishment, conjugators belonging to the verb **tə biː** are always followed by a past participle.

c. In the Passive Voice, Aspect of Activity, two conjugators belonging to the verb **tə biː** are used.   The second of these is always the verbal **biːiŋ**, which is preceded by a finite of the verb **tə biː** and followed by a past participle.

7. Any verb that follows a part of the conjugating verb **tə hav** (in any voice or aspect) must be a past participle.

8. Any verb form that follows any other conjugator (that is, a part of the verb tə duː, the finite juːst, or any modal) must be an infinitive.

GRAMMAR OF THE TEMPORALS

154   Verbs that supply the temporals.   The temporals are finites of the three verbs tə biː, tə hav and tə duː, to which may be added the finite juːst (tə).   They indicate tenses, and most of them undergo changes of form inside the tense in order to make them agree with the number and person of the subject.   These changes, which are a legacy from an earlier stage of the language, are always made by careful speakers, though they make no useful contribution to clarity of expression, as is clear from the fact that the temporals had, did and juːst and all the modals have an invariable form and function quite efficiently.

The twelve temporal finites are listed below, with the number and person with which they are used, and the tenses in which they occur.

Finite	*Person and Number*	*Tenses*
am	1st pers. sing.	A7, P1, P7
iz	3rd pers. sing.	A7, P1, P7
aː*	all persons plural	A7, P1, P7
woz	all persons singular	A8, P2, P8
wəː*	all persons plural	A8, P2, P8
hav	1st pers. sing. and all persons plural	A4, A10, P4
haz	3rd pers. sing.	A4, A10, P4
had	all persons	A5, A11, P5
duː	1st pers. sing. and all persons plural	A1
dʌz	3rd pers. sing.	A1
did	all persons	A2
juːst	all persons	Special past

This last finite is invariable for number and person.   It forms a special past tense denoting habit, or permanence of a condition, often suggesting a contrast with the present.

The verbs from which the foregoing conjugating finites are taken have other, non-conjugating, functions.   In order to facilitate comparison of the grammatical structures used in the two cases the

non-conjugating uses of these verbs will be described in the following paragraphs.

155   Other uses of the verb tə biː.   In addition to its conjugating function, this verb is used in the following ways.

1. As a verb of incomplete predication, requiring a complement to complete the meaning of the sentence.   The complement may be a noun (nominal predicate), adjective (adjectival predicate), adverb (adverbial predicate) or prepositional phrase.   Examples:

'ðat 'man z ðə 'prezidn̩t.	—— Noun.
joː 'hat s ˌdəːti.	—— Adjective.
ʃi 'woznt 'ðeə.	—— Adverb.
wi ər in ðə 'gaːdn̩.	—— Phrase.

2. To indicate obligation, an arrangement, an intention or some similar meaning, in which case it is followed by **tu** and an infinitive. Put into the negative this structure expresses prohibition; in this case the regular negative finites are almost always replaced by the affirmative finites followed by **not** (§159).   Examples:

'am ai tə 'weit fə ju?	—— Obligation.
ju ə 'not tə 'gou eni 'fəːðə.	—— Prohibition.
'weə z ðə 'miːtiŋ tə bi 'held?	—— Arrangement.
wi wə tu əv bin 'marid in 'dʒuːn.	—— Intention.

In all these cases these finites are treated, in respect of sentence structure, word order and weakening, exactly as they are when acting as conjugators, with the single exception of the imperative. This is described in detail in §§236–8.

For the "precursory there" and "precursory it" constructions see §§231–2.

156   Other uses of the verb tə hav.   This difficult verb has developed a large variety of specific meanings, and its use is complicated by the fact that in some of these meanings it does not always follow the rules of sentence structure, though irregularities are confined to two tenses in the Aspect of Accomplishment, the Present Direct and the Past Direct, which, it should be noted, are the two tenses that have an anomalous structure in the unemphatic affirmative (see §336).   The three structural patterns into which the verb **tə hav** enters are, then, as follows.

A.   When the three finites of tə hav are used as conjugators they help to form some of the perfect tenses of other verbs and are always followed by a past participle.   They are also the medium through which interrogation and negation are indicated.   Examples of their use in this capacity will be found in §§165–7.

B.   When tə hav is used as a specific verb with certain meanings it is conjugated like any other specific verb.   That is to say, its finites (now specific finites) are used only in the unemphatic affirmative form of Tenses A1 and A2, the interrogative, negative and emphatic affirmative constructions being formed by introducing the usual conjugators: duː or dʌz for Tense A1 and did for Tense A2.

The following are the meanings in which tə hav is always conjugated regularly in this way:

To experience.

d ju 'hav mʌtʃ 'difik|ti wið ði ˙ˈˈɪngliʃ ˈvəːbz?
'dʌznt i ˙hav 'sliːplis 'naits?
did ju 'hav ə ˙gud 'taim on joː ˙holidiz?—ˈjes, wi ˌhad ə ˈveri
    gud ˌtaim; wi 'didṇt hav 'eni rein ət ˌoːl.

To consume.

ai 'dount ˈjuːʒuli hav ˌʃugər in ˌkofi.
'wot 'taim dəz ʃi ˙hav ˌbrekfəst?
'wen did ju ˙laːst hav ə ˌmiːl?

To give birth.

'hau 'ofṇ dəz joː 'kat hav ˈkitṇz?

To trick or deceive.

did mai 'brʌðə 'hav ju wið ˙ðat ˙ould ˙trik?

To cause something to be done.

wi 'dount ˙hav auə ˙njuːspeipəz diˇlivəd.
'hau ˙ofṇ dəz i 'hav iz ˈheə ˌkʌt?
'didṇt ju 'hav joː 'haus ˙peintid ˙laːst ˙sʌmə?

To suffer something.

'didṇt i ˙hav iz 'leg ˙broukən in ði ˙aksidṇt?

When **tə hav** is followed by a noun denoting an action, thus replacing a verb of similar meaning, it is conjugated as a specific verb.   Examples:

> d ju 'evə hav ə ˙geim əv ⁄futbɔːl?
> 'wai ˙dount ˎjuː hav ə ˌgou?
> did ju 'hav ə ˙luk ət ðə ⁄peipə ðis ˙mɔːniŋ?
> ai 'didn̩t hav ə ˎʃeiv ðis ˌmɔːniŋ.

Also in the following idioms **tə hav** is conjugated as a specific verb.

> 'didn̩t i ˙hav it ⁄aut wið iz ˙brʌðə?
> d ju 'hav jɔː ⁄frendz ˙in in ði ˙iːvniŋz?
> ʃi 'dʌzn̩t ˙hav 'evriθiŋ hər 'oun ˅wei.

C.   When, however, **tə hav** has certain other specific meanings, an appreciable number of speakers use an anomalous structure in Tenses A1 and A2.   This anomaly consists in making the three finites of **tə hav** (which are here specific finites) do their own work of interrogation (by inverting them with their subject) and negation (by using the contracted negative forms) instead of bringing in the conjugators **duː, dʌz, did** and **dount, dʌzn̩t, didn̩t** to perform these tasks for them.

The meanings in which this structure is used are (1) a group of meanings associated with the idea of possession, i.e., to possess literally or figuratively, to be equipped with, to be in enjoyment of, to be characterized by, to exhibit, and (2) the meaning of to be obliged to and its negative, to be exempted from.   The majority of native speakers of English feel instinctively that a structure that is normally associated with the conjugation of other verbs is too weak to carry the above meanings.   They therefore strengthen it by adding the past participle **got**, thus forming the Present Perfect and Past Perfect tenses of the verb **tə get**, with the implication "I've obtained, therefore I have," which brings it back notionally from the perfect to the direct time reference.   This structure, which conforms grammatically to Pattern A, above, is used much more consistently in the present than in the past, where Pattern B is more favoured.

For purposes of comparison examples are given below in all three patterns.   It will be noticed that in Patterns B and C affirmative sentences are identical.

Possession.

A.   mai 'ʌŋkl̩ z got ən ə'tak əv ˅fluː.
B, C. mai 'ʌŋkl̩ haz ən ə'tak əv ˅fluː.
A.   ʃi z got 'bjuːtifl̩ blak ˅heə.
B, C. ʃi haz 'bjuːtifl̩ blak ˅heə.
A.   'hau meni ˅tʃildrn̩ əv ju ˌgot?
B.   'hau meni ˅tʃildrn̩ d ju ˌhav?   (Am.)
C.   'hau meni ˅tʃildrn̩ ˌhav ju?
A.   həv ju 'got ə ʹmatʃ?—˅nou, ai m ˅sori, ai ˅havn̩t.
B.   d ju 'hav ə ʹmatʃ?—˅nou, ai m ˅sori, ai ˅dount.   (Am.)
C.   'hav ju ə ʹmatʃ?—˅nou, ai m ˅sori, ai ˅havn̩t.
A.   ðei d 'got sm̩ ˅relətivz, bət ðei 'hadn̩t got ˙meni ˅frendz.
B.   ðei 'had sm̩ ˅relətivz, bət ðei 'didn̩t hav ˙meni ˅frendz.
C.   ðei 'had sm̩ ˅relətivz, bət ðei 'hadn̩t ˙meni ˅frendz.

Obligation.

A.   ai v 'got tə ˙weit fə ði ˅ʌðəz.
B, C. ai 'hav tə ˙weit fə ði ˅ʌðəz.
A.   həz i 'got tə ˙duː it wið'aut eni ʹhelp?
B.   dəz i 'hav tə ˙duː it wið'aut eni ʹhelp?
C.   'haz i tə ˙duː it wið'aut eni ʹhelp?
A.   wi 'havn̩t ˙got tə bi ˙ðeə til ˅sevn̩.
B.   wi 'dount ˙hav tə bi ˙ðeə til ˅sevn̩.
C.   wi 'havn̩t tə bi ˙ðeə til ˅sevn̩.   (Provincial)
A.   'hadn̩t ju ˙got tə ˙poust ə ʹletə?
B.   'didn̩t ju ˙hav tə ˙poust ə ʹletə?
C.   'hadn̩t ju tə ˙poust ə ʹletə?   (Provincial)

British speakers tend to distinguish between an obligation that
is permanent or imposed repeatedly and one that is temporary or
imposed only once by using Pattern B for the former and Pattern A
for the latter.   Examples:

A.   ai v 'got tə bi ˙ðeər ʹəːli ðis ˌmoːniŋ.
B.   ai 'hav tə bi ˙ðeər ˙əːli 'evri ˅moːniŋ.
A.   'havn̩t ju ˙got tə ˙siː ðəm tə'dei?
B.   'dount ju ˙hav tə ˙siː ðəm 'evri ʹdei?

This distinction is not often made in American English, where
most speakers may use Pattern B in all contexts.

157 Other uses of the verbs tə duː and tə juːz.. These two verbs are used as specific verbs, but present no problems, as they are conjugated regularly.

The verb tə duː has the meaning: to perform an action in a general sense, as well as numerous other meanings more or less closely connected. Examples:

> ai 'havṇt ˙dʌn mai ˇhoumwəːk ; wil 'juː ˙help mi tə 'duː it?
> ju məs 'duː wot ˙evribodi ˇels ˏdʌz.

The verb tə juːz has the meaning to employ something for a purpose, and is easily distinguished from the conjugator juːst because the latter has suffered assimilation (see §13) since it is almost always followed by tə. The past form of the specific verb preserves the voiced form juːzd. Examples:

> 'wot did ju ˙juːz tə ˇʃeiv wið?—ai 'juːzd ə ˇseifti ˏreizə.
> iz 'dʒon ˙juːziŋ mai 'koum?—ˇnou, hi 'oːlwiz ˙juːziz iz ˇoun.

158 Verbs that conjugate themselves. The conjugators that derive from specific verbs may form tenses of these same verbs, giving rise to a combination that often puzzles students, i.e., a repetition of the same or nearly the same verb form in a sentence. It should be remembered that its first occurrence is as a conjugating finite and its second as a specific verbal. The confusion arises from the fact that certain finites and verbals share the same form. Examples:

> 'had i ˙had 'oːl i 'wontid?—ˇjes, hi d 'had iˇnʌf.
> ju ʃəd 'duː it 'twais ə ˏdei.—ai ˇduː ˏduː it ˏtwais ə ˏdei.
> 'hau d ju ˏduː? ˇduː ˏduː it əz ˏwel əz ju ˏkan.
> ai 'juːst tə ˙juːz ə ˇseifti ˏreizə, bət 'leitli ai v ˙juːzd ən iˇlektrik
>   ˏreizə.

FORMS OF THE TEMPORALS

159 Weak forms. With the exception of **did** and **juːst** all the affirmative temporals have essential weak forms, as shown in §16. In most cases there are several of these, and the choice between them largely depends on the phonetic context in which the finite occurs.

There is no weakening, properly so called, of the negative finites, but in certain phonetic contexts the final **t** may be elided, and in rapid speech certain assimilations may occur. These are dealt with in §172.

It should be noted that in the case of the five finites of the verb **tə biː** there is an alternative method of expressing negation, which consists of using the weak affirmative forms followed by a stressed **ˈnot**. This method is very seldom used in questions, where it sounds stilted. In statements it gives rather greater emphasis to the negation. The proportion in which it is used as a substitute for the regular negative construction varies from speaker to speaker, and it is used less frequently in the past tense than in the present, while in the first person singular of the present tense it is the only form used in statements (§160). Examples of the use of this alternative negative form are given in the next five sections.

A similar alternative method of expressing negation with the three finites of the verb **tə hav** may sometimes be heard, but this is not recommended for adoption by foreign students as it carries a dialectal flavour.

Copious examples of the use of the strong and weak forms of the temporals are given in the next twelve sections. It should be remembered that the weak forms are used far more frequently than the strong forms.

160   am — (aːnt). Used in tenses A7, P1, P7 in the 1st person singular. The negative form is used only in questions; the form used in statements is **m not**.

Negative form.

aːnt in all questions:
   ˈaːnt ai ˋdʒenərəs !   ai m ˋleit, ˊaːnt ai ?
m not in all statements:
   ai m ˈnot ˋredi ˌjet.   ˋhiː z ˌgouiŋ, bət ˋai m ˌnot.
   ai ˌtel ju ai m ˋnot !   ai m ˈnot ˙teikiŋ eni ˇtʃaːnsiz.

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

am in all cases:
   ˈam ai tə ˊweit fə ðəm ?   ai ˋam ˌglad tə ˌhiə ˌðat.
   ˋai nou ˌweər ai ˌam.

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

am when not followed by a complement or verbal:

    d ju 'nou huː 'ai am?   'ðei ər əz ˙taiəd əz ˎai am.

əm when preceding its subject:

    əm 'ai ðə 'fəːst?   'wot əm ai tə ˎduː?

    'haːdli ˎevər əm ai ˌeibl̩ tə ˌsiː im.

m when it follows ai:

    ai m ˎweitiŋ fə ðəm.   ai 'θiŋk ai m biːiŋ ˎfolud.

    ai m ˅redi.   ai m fə'bidn̩ tə ˎmuːv.

161   iz — izn̩t. Used in tenses A7, P1, P7 in the 3rd person singular.

Negative form.

izn̩t in all cases:

    ðə ˎweðər ˌizn̩t ˌbad.   ʃi 'izn̩t ˙getiŋ eni ˅betə.

    'izn̩t 'tiː ˙redi?—ˎnou, it ˎizn̩t.

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

iz in all cases:

    it 'iz ˙ritn̩ ˎˏbadli.   it 'iz biːiŋ ə˅tendid tu.

    it 'iz ˎˏdifiklt !   'iz it 'wʌn ə'klok jet?

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

iz (1) when not followed by a complement or verbal:

    d ju 'nou wot 'ðat iz?   ai m ˎmʌtʃ moː ˌtaiəd ðən ˎˏhiː iz.

    ˎai m biːiŋ ˌentəˏteind, bət ai 'dount θiŋk ˎˏhiː iz.

iz (2) in initial positions:

    iz joːr 'ʌŋkl̩ kʌmiŋ?   iz 'ðat wot ju ˙miːn?

iz (3) when preceded by s, z, ʃ or ʒ:

    'ðat 'boks iz ˎful.   ðə 'vaːz iz ˎbroukən.

    'witʃ iz ˎjoːz?   ðə 'peidʒ iz ˎtoːn.

iz (4) often after a pause:

    mai 'njuː ʌm˅brelə, witʃ ˎdʒon ˌgeiv mi, iz in ðə ˎhoːl.

    ðə 'wʌn ˎai ʃəd ˌlaik iz 'biːiŋ ˎmendid.

s after voiceless consonants (except s and ʃ):

ˈðis kʌp s ˅dəːti.   hiz ˅helθ s im͵pruːviŋ.
ˈwot s ˏðat?   mai ˅waif s ˏðeə.
ðə ˅lok s ˏbroukən.   it s ˈbiːiŋ əˉtendid tu.

z in all other cases:

ðə ˈpaːsl z ˅redi.   ðə ˈsiː z ˉgetiŋ ˅rʌf.
˅ðis ˏruːm z ͵woːm.   ðə ˈdoː z biːiŋ ˏkliːnd.
ðə ˈdog z ˉtʃeind ˏʌp.   ˈweə z ˏmʌðə?—ʃi z ˅hiə.
ʃi z ˈnot ˅redi ˏjet.   ðə ˈman z ˈnot ˅lisniŋ.

162 aː* — aːnt. Used in tenses A7, P1, P7 in the 1st, 2nd and 3rd persons plural.

Negative form.

aːnt in all cases:

ˈaːnt ju ˊtaiəd?   ðei ˈaːnt ˅juːzd ͵nauədeiz.
ˈaːnt wi biːiŋ ˊmet?—˅nou, wi ˅aːnt.

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

aː when not followed by a vowel:

wi ˅aː biːiŋ ˏfolud.   ai ˈnou weə ju ˅aː.
ˈaː ju ˉweitiŋ fə ˊmiː?—˅jes, wi ˅aː.

aːr when followed immediately by a vowel:

ju ˅aːr ik͵saitəbl̩!   wi ˅aːr ͵aːnsəriŋ ðə ˏletə.
ˈðei ˏaːr in ə ˏhʌri!   ˈaːr ˊoːl əv ju ˉkʌmiŋ?

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

aː when not followed by a complement or verbal:

ˈhuː d ju θiŋk ˅ðei aː?   ˅ai m moː ͵taiəd ðən ˅juː aː.

ər when followed immediately by a vowel:

ər ˈoːl mai ˊfrendz ðeə?   joː ˈfrendz ər ˅aːskiŋ fə ju.

ə in all other cases:

ə ju ˊbizi?   ə ju ˈbiːiŋ lukt ˊaːftə?
wi ə ˈkwait ˅redi.   ðei ə ˈwontid i˅miːdjətli.
ə ðei ˈkʌmiŋ tə˅dei?   joː ˈfrendz ə ˅weitiŋ fə ju.
wi ə ˈnot ˅kʌmiŋ.   ðei ə ˈnot ˉgouiŋ tə ˏweit.

163   woz — woznt.   Used in tenses A8, P2, P8 in the 1st and 3rd persons singular.   It may, however, be replaced by wə: — wə:nt in certain subordinate clauses.

Negative form.

woznt in all cases:

'woznt ai 'rait?   ai 'woznt 'tould əbaut it.
'woznt ʃi 'tɔːkiŋ tə 'juː?—'nou, ʃi ˏwoznt.

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

woz in all cases:

'hiː ˏwoz ə ˏnais ˏman.   'woz it biːiŋ 'mendid?
'woz i riˈfəːriŋ tə 'mi?—'jes, hi 'woz.

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

woz when not followed by a complement or verbal:

iz 'ðat weə ðə 'tʃəːtʃ woz?   'wiː wər əz 'taiəd əz 'hiː woz.

wəz in all other cases:

ai wəz 'tould tə ˏweit.   wəz it 'biːiŋ 'mendid?
wəz i ə'sliːp?—'jes, hi wəz 'teikiŋ ə ˏnap.
hi wəz 'not 'wɔːnd.   it wəz 'not 'wəːθ it.

164   wə:* — wə:nt.   Used in tenses A8, P2, P8 in the 1st, 2nd and 3rd persons plural.   In certain subordinate clauses, however, it may replace woz — woznt in the singular.

Negative form.

wə:nt in all cases:

wi 'wəːnt 'wɔːnd əbaut it.   'wəːnt ju biːiŋ 'peid fə ðə 'wəːk?
'wəːnt ðei 'tɔːkiŋ tə 'juː?—'nou, ðei ˏwəːnt.

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

wə:r before a vowel:

'wəːr ɔːl ðə 'buks 'sould?   wi 'nevə 'wəːr əˏlaud tə ˏgou.

wə: in all other cases:

'wəː ju ət ðə 'θiətə?   'ðei ˏwəː ˏpliːzd.

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Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

wə: when not followed by a complement or verbal:

       d ju 'nou wot 'ðei wəː? `hiː wəz əz ˌtaiəd əz ˌjuː wəː.

wər before a vowel:

wi wər ə`loun.                ai d `gou if ai wər ⌄aːskt.

ðei wər ʌp`set.             wi wər `oːlwiz əˌlaud tə ˌgou.

wər 'eni əv ju 'ðeə?—wi wər `oːl ˌðeə.

wə in all other cases:

ðei wə biːiŋ in`spektid.      wi wə `nevər əˌlaud tə ˌgou.

'wen wə ju ˙teikən ˌil?   wə 'juː ðə 'fəːst tu ə˙raiv?

wi wə 'not ˌintristid.   ju wə 'not inˬvaitid.

With singular subjects when expressing hypotheses or wishes.

ai 'wiʃ ʃi wə ⌄hiə.   ai ʃəd `stei if ˌai wə juː.

hi d `help ju if i ˌwəːnt sou ˌbizi.

165   hav — havn̦t.   Used in tenses A4, A10, P4 in all except the 3rd person singular.

Negative form.

havn̦t in all cases:

    'havn̦t ju bin 'rʌniŋ?—`nou, ai `havn̦t.

    'havn̦t ðei bin ˙θroun ə'wei?—`nou, ai m `ʃoː ðei ˌhavn̦t.

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

hav in all cases:

    'hav ju ˙teikən joː 'medsin?—`jes, ai ˌhav.

    'hav ðei bin ˙wəːkiŋ 'wel?—`jes, ðei `hav, `veri ˌwel.

    'hav wi bin ˙givn̦ ə 'holidi?—`jes, wi ˌhav.

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

hav when not followed by a verbal

    `hiː ˌhazn̦t ˌsiːn it, bət ⌄ai hav.

    `ʃiː z bin ˌwəːkiŋ, bət weðə ⌄juː hav iz `dautfl̦.

    'henri ˙hazn̦t ə`raivd, bət ði ⌄ʌðəz hav, ˙foːtʃn̦itli.

həv in initial positions:

həv 'eni əv ðəm ə'raivd?   həv ju bin 'weitiŋ 'loŋ?

həv ðei bin 'noutifaid?

əv (1) after consonants:

ðə 'boiz əv 'gon tə ˇbed.   joː 'frendz əv bin ˇaːskiŋ fə ju.
ðə 'rest əv bin ˙put əˌwei.

əv (2) after interrogatives:

'huː əv ju ˌsiːn?   'wai əv ai bin igˋnoːd?
'wot əv ðei bin ˇduːiŋ?   'weər əv ðei bin ˇhidn̩?

əv (3) after multiple subjects:

'dʒon ən ˇmeəri əv ˌkʌm tə ˌsiː əs.

v (1) after personal pronouns (except it):

wi v ˇdʌn ˌðat.   ai v 'dʒʌst bin ˇriːdiŋ it.
ðei v bin ˇspoilt.   ju v 'teikən ðə ˇroŋ wʌn.

v (2) after huː (relative):

ə'tend tə ˙ðouz u v əˇraivd. 'eni hu v ˙siːn it kən ˌgou.

166   haz — haznt. Used in tenses A4, A10, P4 in the 3rd person singular only.

Negative form.

haznt in all cases:

'haznt ˙sʌmθiŋ bin fəˊgotn̩? ʃi 'haznt bin ˇwəːkiŋ ˌleitli.
'haznt ðə ˊmilkmən ˙kʌm jet?—ˇnou, hi ˌhaznt.

Affirmative from in stressed positions.

haz in all cases:

'haz i ˊpeid ju jet?   ˌweə 'haz i ˌput it?
it 'haz bin ˇnoun tə ˌhapən. ai 'θink ʃi ˇhaz bin ˌduːiŋ it.

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

haz when not followed by a verbal:

ˇai ˌhavn̩t ˌsiːn it, bət ˇʃiː haz.
ˇjuː v bin ˌwəːkiŋ, bət weðə ˇhiː haz iz ˇdautfl̩.
ˇmain ˌhaznt bin ˌfaund, bət ˇjoːz haz ˙foːtʃn̩itli.

həz in initial positions:

həz 'enibodi əˊraivd?   həz i bin 'weitiŋ ˊloŋ?
həz i bin ˊnoutifaid?

əz after s, z, ʃ or ʒ:

ˈoːl ðə ˙kaʃ əz ˙disəˋpiəd.   mai ˈwotʃ əz bin ˋgeiniŋ.
joː ˈpleis əz bin ˋteikən.   ðə ˈgaraːʒ əz bin ˏpeintid.

s after voiceless consonants (except s and ʃ):

ðə ˈkuk s ˙bəːnt ðə ˋkeik.   ðə ˋruːf s bin ˏliːkiŋ.
auə ˈtrip s bin ˋkans|d.   it s bin ˋlost.

z after voiced sounds (except z and ʒ):

ðə ˋdog z ˏiːtŋ it.   mai ˈbrʌðə z bin ˏtoːkiŋ tu im.
ˈðis ˙ruːm z bin ˋkliːnd.   joː ˋʃuː z bin ˏfaund.
ðə ˋsʌn z kʌm ˏaut.   mai ˈkaː z bin ˙rʌniŋ veri ˋwel.

167   had — hadŋt. Used in tenses A5, A11, P5 in all persons.

Negative form.

hadŋt in all cases:

ai ˈhadŋt ˋhəːd əbaut it biˏfoː ˏjuː ˏtould mi.
hi ˈhadŋt bin ˋdriŋkiŋ wen i ˏhad ði ˏaksidŋt.
ju ˈgot ˙wəːs bikoz ju ˈhadŋt bin ˙kept in ˋbed.

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

had in all cases:

if ai ˋhad ˏnoun əbaut it ai ʃəd əv ˋtould ju.
ˈhad ju bin ˙θiŋkiŋ əv ˈgouiŋ əˊbroːd fə joː ˙holidiz?
ˋðei ˏhadŋt bin ˋwʌrid bai ðə ˏnoiz, bət ˅ai ˋhad.

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

had when not followed by a verbal:

ˋwiː ˏkudŋt əv ˏdʌn it, but if ˅juː had, wi d əv ˋhelpt ju.
ˋjuː d bin ˏwəːkiŋ, bət weðə ˅hiː had iz ˋdautf|.
ˋðei ˏhadŋt bin ˏwʌrid bai ðə ˏnoiz, bət ˅ai had.

həd in initial positions:

həd ju ˈevə bin ˙ðeə biˊfoə?
həd ˈeni əv joː ˙frendz bin ˊtoːkiŋ əbaut it?
həd i bin ˈtould ˙wot tə ˊduː?

əd (1) after consonants:

ˋbob əd ˌteikən ði ˏʌðəz.   ðə ˈtʃildr̩n əd ˙gon tə ˏbed.
ˋtom əd bin ˌhelpiŋ əs.   ˋmain əd bin ˌeikiŋ fə ˋmʌnθs.
ᵛðat əd bin ˋsetǀd.   ʃi ˈsed it əd bin ˙teikən əˋwei.

əd (2) after interrogatives including huː used as object:

ˈhuː əd ju ˏsiːn ?   ˈwai əd ai bin igˋnoːd ?
ˈwot əd ðei bin ˋduːiŋ ?   ˈweər əd ðei bin ˋhidn̩ ?

əd (3) after multiple subjects:

ˈdʒon ən ˙meəri əd oːlˈredi ˋgon.

d (1) after personal pronouns (except it):

ˈai ˈθoːt ju d ˋfiniʃt.   ju ˋnjuː ai d bin ˌweitiŋ fə ju.
ʃi ˋnjuː i d ˌteikən it.   wi wə ˈtould ðei d bin ˋwoːnd.

d (2) after huː used as subject:

ðei ˈwudn̩t ˋsei ˌhuː d ˌkʌt it.   ðə ˈman u d ᵛdʌn it isˋkeipt.

d (3) usually after nouns ending in a vowel:

ðə ˋboi d ˌritn̩ it.   ˋhari d bin ˌpʌniʃt fər it.

168   duː — dount.   Used in tense A1, in all forms of the sentence except the unemphatic affirmative (in which its place is taken by the appropriate specific finite) and in all persons except the 3rd person singular.

Negative form.

dount in all cases:
    ˈwai dount ðei ˋaːnsə ?   wi ˈdount wont tə ˏgou.
    ˈdount ju ′laik it ?—ˋnou, ai ˏdount.

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

duː in all cases:
    ai ˋduː ˌlaik ðat ᵛhat !   ðei ˈduː ᵛwont it, ′dount ðei ?
    ˈduː ju ′nou ðəm ?—ˋjes, wi ˏduː.

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

duː when not followed by a specific verbal:
    ˋðei dount ˌlaik it, bət ᵛwiː duː.
    ai ˈdount ˌwont tə ˏgou, bət if ᵛjuː duː ai ǀ ˈkʌm ˋwið ju.

Verbs

du before vowels and w:

du ai ′hav tə ˙gou ?   du ′oːl əv ðəm biˈloŋ tə ju ?
′weə du wi ˙put auə ˋhats ?   ′hau du ˋegz ˌsjuːt ju ?

d before ju when unstressed:

d ju ′laik ðəm ?   ′wot d ju ˙wont fə jə ˋbəːθdei ?
′hau d ju ˌduː ?   d ju ′spiːk ′spaniʃ ?

də in all other cases:

də ′juː wont ˙wʌn əv ðəm ?   də ði ′ʌðəz inˈtend tə ˙kʌm ?
′weə də ðei ˙wont it ˌput ?   ′hau də joː ˋsistəz ˌlaik it ?

169 dʌz — dʌznt. Used in tense A1, in the 3rd person singular instead of duː — dount.

Negative form.

dʌznt in all cases:

′wai dʌznt ʃi ˋaːnsə ?   ˋðat dʌznt ˌwʌri mi.
′dʌznt i ′wont eni ?—ˋnou, hi ˌdʌznt.

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

dʌz in all cases:

′ðat ˌdʌz luk ˌnais !   hi ′dʌz ˇwont it, ′dʌznt i ?
′dʌz it ′matə ?—ˋjes, it ˋdʌz.

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

dʌz when not followed by a specific verbal:

ˋjuː ˌplei ˌbetə ðən ˇʃiː dʌz.
ʃi ′dʌznt ˌwont tə ˌgou, bət if ˇhiː dʌz ′ʃiː l gou ˋwið im.

dəz in all other cases:

dəz ′meəri ′laik it ?   ′weə dəz ˋdʒon ˌwəːk ?
dəz it ′matə ?   ′wot ˙taim dəz ðə ˋtrein get ˌin ?

170 did — didnt. Used in tense A2 in all persons and in all forms of the sentence except the unemphatic affirmative, in which its place is taken by the appropriate specific finite.

Negative form.

didṇt in all cases:

'wai didṇt ðei 'sei sou?   joː 'letə ˙didṇt əˈraiv in ˌtaim.
'didṇt 'juː ˙breik ðis ˙kʌp?—'nou, ai 'didṇt.

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

did in all cases:

ai 'did ˌlaik joː ˌ˅paːti!   ju 'did ʌndə˅stand, 'didṇt ju?
'did ju 'miːt ðəm?—'jes, wi ˌdid.

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

did in all cases:

did it 'wəːk ˙propəli?   'wen did ðei 'aːsk ju əbaut it?
did 'piːtə ˙wont eni?   'juː didṇt ˌsiː it, bət ˅ai did.

171   juːst — juːsṇt.   Used in a special past tense which takes the place of tense A2 when it is desired to contrast past with present. It is invariable for person.

Negative form.

juːst not is often used in statements:

ju 'juːst ˌnot tə ˌwʌri.   ai 'juːst not tə 'laik ˌswimiŋ.

juːsṇt always in questions, sometimes in statements:

hi 'juːsṇt tə bi sou ˌruːd   'juːsṇt ðə tə bi ə 'haus hiə?
'juːsṇt ju tə ˙plei ðə 'pjaːnu?—'nou, ai ˌjuːsṇt tu.

Affirmative form, whether stressed or unstressed.

juːst in both questions and statements:

'juːst ju tə ˙liv 'hiə?   ˅wiː juːst tə ˙siː im evri 'dei.
'juːst ðei tu 'win?   ðə ˅juːst tə biː ə 'triː ðeə.
'juːst ju tə ˙plei ðə 'pjaːnu?—'jes, ai ˌ˅juːst tu.

This finite can be used in the passive voice and in perfect tenses in the same way as the modals (§§176–8):

˅ai juːst tə bi 'pʌniʃt fə duːiŋ ˌðat soːt əv ˙θiŋ.
'juːsṇt ju tu əv 'finiʃt bai ˙ðis taim?
wi 'juːst ˙not tə bi 'boðəd bai ðə ˌnoiz əv ˌeəkraːft.

The same construction is used with past participles that are functioning as adjectives:

> ju 'juːst tə bi ˙pliːzd tə ˋsiː mi.
> hi 'juːst ˙not tə bi sou 'wel ˋnoun.
> 'juːsn̩t ðə ˙siːts tə bi ri′zəːvd?

There is a popular tendency to conjugate juːst with did, thus treating it as a specific verb. This is hard to justify logically unless one recognizes the introduction of a new infinitive tə juːs (as opposed to the established tə juːz = to employ). In tags, however, it may be said that did is conjugating the specific verb that follows juːst, as in the following examples:

> ʃi 'juːst not tə ˋlaik it, ′did ʃi (like it) ?—ˋnou, ʃi ˋdidn̩t (like it).
> ju 'juːst tə ˙plei ðə ˋpjaːnu, ′didn̩t ju (play the piano) ?—ˋjes,
>   ai ˏdid (play the piano).

172   Special elisions and assimilations. In rapid and familiar speech several of the temporal finites may undergo special elisions (§12) and assimilations (§13) when they occur in certain phonetic contexts. While foreign students of English need not adopt these modifications (which are not often shown in phonetic transcriptions) they should be aware of their existence. They are therefore listed below, and examples are given of contexts in which they may be heard.

Negative forms.

Normal	Before p, b or m	Before t, d or n	Before k or g
izn̩t	izm̩p, izm̩	izn̩	izŋ̍k, izŋ̍
havn̩t	havm̩p, havm̩	havn̩	havŋ̍k, havŋ̍
hazn̩t	hazm̩p, hazm̩	hazn̩	hazŋ̍k, hazŋ̍
dount	doump, doum	doun	dounk, douŋ
dʌzn̩t	dʌzm̩p, dʌzm̩	dʌzn̩	dʌzŋ̍k, dʌzŋ̍

hi 'izm̩p ˋpleiiŋ tə‚dei.   ʃi 'hazn̩ ˋnoutist əs.

'izŋ̍ ′gladis ˙kʌmiŋ?   wi 'doun ˋnou əm.

ai 'havn̩ ˋdʌn it ‚jet.   ˋdounk ‚gou ə‚wei.

ðei 'havm̩ ˋmeid eni.   'dʌzm̩ ′bob ˙wont wʌn?

ʃi 'hazŋ̍ ˋkept eni.   it 'dʌzŋ̍ ˙grou veri ˇfaːst.

Affirmative forms.

Normal	Before ʃ, ʒ or j	Before ʃ	Between t and ʃ or j
iz, z, s	iʒ, ʒ	iʃ, ʃ	ʃ
woz, wəz	woʒ, wəʒ	woʃ, wəʃ	
haz, həz, əz, z	haʒ, həʒ, əʒ, ʒ	haʃ, həʃ, əʃ, ʃ	ʃ
dʌz, dəz	dʌʒ, dəʒ	dʌʃ, dəʃ	

    iʒ joː 'frend ´redi?   'witʃ əʒ jər ˋaːnt ˏtʃouzṇ?

    'iʃ ʃi ´weitiŋ fər əs?   'haʃ ʃi ´ritṇ tə ju?

    it ʃ ˋjoː ˏfoːlt.   ˋðat ʃ ˏʃokt ju!

    'weə wəʒ jə ˋhat?   ˏhau 'dʌʒ jər ˙aːnt ˏduː it?

    wəʃ ʃi ´juːziŋ it?   'wot dəʃ ʃi ˏθiŋk əˏbaut it?

Notice also that

    hav is sometimes pronounced haf before tu or tə,

    əv (= have) is sometimes pronounced f between voiceless
    consonants,

    did is sometimes pronounced dd, especially between vowels:

    ai ʃḷ ˋhaf tə ˏgou.   'hau dd i ˙get ˏon?

    ai ʃt f ˏθoːt sou.   dd i ´stei wið ju?

GRAMMAR OF THE MODALS

173 Tense nomenclature. Influenced by the grammatical struc-
tures of other languages with very different verb systems, English
grammarians usually label tenses formed with wil or ʃal as "future"
and "future perfect," and those formed with wud or ʃud as "con-
ditional" and "conditional perfect," while tenses formed with the
other modals are now usually left without a name.

A more accurate and comprehensive idea of the work done by
the modal finites can be obtained if they are divided into three
groups:

    Group 1, wil, ʃal, kan, mei, which have a present or future
reference;

    Group 2, wud, ʃud, kud, mait, the historic past-tense forms
of the above, which usually refer to a hypothetical present or
future, and less frequently to a direct past;

    Group 3, mʌst, oːt, niːd, deə*, which have no distinctive past
tense forms and are therefore, in suitable contexts, used in either
capacity.

Since it is easily demonstrable (a) that wil, ʃal, wud and ʃud often have just as strong modal meanings as any of the other modals, (b) that all the modals in Groups 1 and 3 may have the same time references and grammatical functions as wil and ʃal, while all those in Groups 2 and 3 may function like wud and ʃud, and (c) that even modals of Group 2 may, in suitable contexts, refer to the present or future, one is forced to the conclusion that while the modals differ fairly clearly and consistently in meaning, their references to time show a great deal of confusion and overlapping, so that any tense distinctions made between them must be largely artificial and even misleading.

There would therefore seem to be powerful reasons for effecting a very welcome simplification in the table of English tenses by postulating a single set of six "modal tenses" (three direct and three perfect) and dividing the modals themselves into the three groups shown above. One can then formulate rules to re-state the canonical "agreement of tenses," i.e., the rule which divides tenses into two sets:

a. Present, present perfect, future, future perfect,

b. Past, past perfect, conditional, conditional perfect,

and lays down that in most complex sentences tenses in different sets are mutually exclusive. The new rule would state that tenses formed with modals of Groups 1 or 3 would agree with those of set *a*, and modals of Group 2 would agree with set *b*, while modals of Group 3 would also agree with set *b* in indirect speech.

The distribution of the six modal tenses between the voices and aspects, and the names applied to them, are given in §209.

174   Grammatical functions. The time (past, present or future) to which the modals refer and their grammatical relationship to other parts of the sentence are most easily understood if the three groups mentioned in §173 are considered separately.

1. wil, ʃal, kan, mei, refer to actions taking place in either the present or the future; in many cases there is no doubt which of these is referred to, but if necessary an adverb or adverbial is used to make this clear, as may be seen in the following examples:

Present   *Future*

ai I 'siː im ət ˌwʌns.   ai I 'miːt ju ˈnekst ˌwenzdi.
hi ʃI 'hav it ˌnau.   hi ʃI 'hav it wiðin ə ˌwiːk.
wi kən 'staːt iˋmiːdjətli.   wi kən 'staːt ˈnekst ˌjiə.
ju mei 'kʌm ˋin ˌnau.   ju mei 'kʌm ˈin 'leitər ˌon.

The modal mait should perhaps be admitted as a part-time member of this group, as it has a present or future reference when it is used instead of the mei of possibility in order to suggest improbability:

Present   *Future*

it 'mei bi ˈhiər oːlˋredi.   it 'mei əˈraiv 'nekst ˋwiːk.
it 'mait bi ˈhiər oːlˋredi.   it 'mait əˈraiv 'nekst ˋwiːk.

2. wud, ʃud, kud, mait, the past-tense forms of the above, are substituted for them in indirect speech if the reporting verb is in the past tense:

Direct   *Indirect*

ai 'wount ˌweit fə ðəm.   hi 'sed i ˈwudṇt ˌweit fə ðəm.
ai ʃI bi ˌleit.   ai ˋsed ai ʃəd bi ˌleit.
ai kən 'hiər ə ˌnoiz.   ʃi 'sed ʃi kəd ˈhiər ə ˌnoiz.
wi 'mei ˋstei hiə.   wi 'tould im wi ˈmait ˋstei ðeə.

They are also used when it is desired to give a hypothetical feeling to a sentence: such sentences are usually associated with a conditional clause, either expressed or implied.
Examples:

'wud ju ˈlaik ə 'sigəˊret? (if I offered you one).
'wud ðei ˈmaind ˊweitiŋ? (if they were asked to).
ai ʃəd ˋlʌv tə ˌgou ðeə. (if I were invited).
'kudṇt ju əˈfoːd ə 'njuː ˊkaː? (if you wanted one).
hi 'mait not ˈwont tə ˋriːd ðə ˌbuk. (if we gave it to him).

The modals wud and kud, and particularly their negatives, may be used in the direct past tense; they then have full modal meaning:

ai 'aːskt ˋevribodi, bət 'noubodi wud ˌtel mi.
hi kud ˋswim bai ðə ˌtaim i wəz ˌsiks.
ai inˋvaitid im ˌin, bət i 'wudṇt ˌstei.
wi 'left ðə ˈpaːti bikoz wi 'kudṇt ˈstand ðə ˈnoiz eni ˌloŋgə.

3. mʌst, ɔːt, niːd, deə*, have no corresponding past-tense forms and are therefore used in both direct and indirect speech. They are not used hypothetically.

Direct	*Indirect*
ju məst ˅weit.	ai 'tould im i məst �‚weit.
ai 'ɔːt tə ˏhelp ðəm.	ʃi 'sed ʃi ˙ɔːt tə ˏhelp ðəm.
ju ˅niːdn̩t ˏboðə.	hi 'tould mi ai 'niːdn̩t ˏboðə.
ai 'deənt ˏdʒʌmp.	ai 'kɔːld ˙aut ðət ai 'deənt ˏdʒʌmp.

These four modals, like the first four, may apply equally well to the present or the future:

Present	*Future*
ðei məst ˅weit ə ˏminit.	ðei məst 'briŋ it ˙nekst ˏmʌnθ.
ʃi 'ɔːt tə ˙rait ət ˅wʌns.	ʃi 'ɔːt tə ˙duː it ˅suːn.
ju 'niːdn̩t ˙gou tə˅dei.	ju 'niːdn̩t ˙kʌm on ˅satədi.
ai ˅deənt ˏweit eni ˏ˅loŋgə.	ai ˅deənt kʌm ˏbak təˏ˅moru.

175 Conjugation of verbs of the five senses. When they refer to involuntary perception the verbs that specify the actions of the five senses (siː, hiə*, smel, teist and fiːl) are conjugated in the present and past tenses of the aspect of accomplishment with the help of kan and kud instead of duː (dʌz) and did. Thus:

ai kən 'siː ðə ˙sʌn θruː ðə ˏklaudz.
kən ju 'hiə ðə ˅bəːdz ˙siŋiŋ?
'kaːnt ju smel ði ˅ʌnjən in ðə ˙suːp?
ai 'kaːnt ˙teist eni ˅ʃugər in mai ˏkofi.
hi kud 'fiːl ðət ðə ˙woːl had ə 'rʌf ˏsəːfis.

When the senses are being used deliberately the aspect of activity is usually preferred, and luk at and lisn̩ tu are used instead of siː and hiə*. Thus:

ai m 'lukiŋ ət ðə ˏskai, tə 'siː if it s ˙gouiŋ tə ˏrein.
'wot ə ju ˅lisniŋ tu? (Compare: 'wot kən ju ˏhiə?)
wi ə 'smeliŋ ðə ˏsuːp tə 'siː if it ˙haz i'nʌf ˏʌnjən.
ʃi z 'teistiŋ ðə ˙kofi tə 'siː if it s ˅stroŋ inʌf.
hi wəz 'fiːliŋ iz ˙wei əloŋ ðə ˏwoːl.

176   The six modal tenses.   Regarded purely from the structural point of view the English verb possesses six modal tenses, four in the active voice and two in the passive.   These tenses are formed by placing any one of the modals (which, it must be remembered, are finites) before any of the six infinitives shown in the table in §177.   There are no internal complications in the tenses, as all the modals are invariable for number and person.   It is worth noting that the modals cannot be used in the imperative and that the verb form immediately following them is always an infinitive.

The finites **oːt** and **oːtn̩t** are followed by the infinitive with **tu**. The finites **niːd** and **deə*** can be used only in sentences that contain some interrogative, negative or dubitative element, and **deənt** is rarely used in the passive voice.

177   Compound infinitives.   The basic or lexical infinitive of any verb may be regarded as belonging to a set of six infinitives, four in the active voice and two in the passive.   The other infinitives in this set are all compounds formed with the aid of conjugating verbals.   The specific verb form is always a participle, the infinitive element being contributed by a conjugator.   Two of the compound infinitives require two conjugating verbals ; in these cases the first one is the infinitive, since the verb form immediately following a modal must always be an infinitive.

The modal tenses are formed by placing the desired modal before any of these six infinitives, and in this way all the direct and perfect modal tenses in both aspects can be composed.

The six infinitives of the verb **tə teik** are tabulated below.

Tense	Accomplishment	Active	Activity	Tense
A 3	(tə) teik	Direct	(tə) bi teikiŋ	A 9
A 6	(tu) əv teikən	Perfect	(tu) əv bin teikiŋ	A 12

Tense	Accomplishment	Passive	Activity	Tense
P 3	(tə) bi teikən	Direct	Not used	—
P 6	(tu) əv bin teikən	Perfect	Not used	—

Negation can be added to any of the infinitives by placing **not** before the **tu**, thus :

ˈnot tə ˈteik   ˈnot tu əv bin ˈteikən
ˈnot tu əv ˈteikən   ˈnot tə bi ˈteikiŋ
ˈnot tə bi ˈteikən   ˈnot tu əv bin ˈteikiŋ

178 Modal tenses with compound infinitives. The examples below are intended to show how modal tenses are formed with these infinitives. Tense A3, which is formed with the simple infinitive, is included in order to make the list of modal tenses complete. Explanations of the functions of the various tenses will be found in §§210–24.

Active Voice

A 3 *Modal Direct of Accomplishment.*

        ai ʃļ 'liːv wen˙evər ai ˌlaik.
        kən ju 'kʌm ən ˙siː əs 'nekst 'tjuːzdi?
        wi ˎdeənt gou ˌin wiðaut pəˎmiʃṇ.
        'wudṇt it bi ˙betə tə 'weit til 'fraidi?

A 6 *Modal Perfect of Accomplishment.*

        ðei 'mei əv ˎleft biˌfoː wi ˌget ðeə.
        'wil ju əv 'finiʃt bai ðə ˙taim ai get ˙bak?
        hi ˎkaːnt əv ˌment tə ˌθrou it əˌwei.
        'ʃudṇt ju əv ˙tould mi əbaut it 'jestədi?

A 9 *Modal Direct of Activity*

        ai ʃļ bi ə'raiviŋ ət 'ten əˌklok.
        wud ju bi 'wontiŋ ˙eniθiŋ ˎels?
        wi 'ʃaːnt bi ˙gouiŋ intə ˙taun dʒʌst ˌˎjet.
        'oːtṇt ju tə bi ˙duiŋ joː 'houmwəːk?

A12 *Modal Perfect of Activity*

        ðei 'mei əv bin ˙traiiŋ tə ˎfoun əs ˌoːl ðis ˌtaim.
        'wil ʃi əv bin ˙wəːkiŋ in ði 'ofis tə˙dei?
        hi 'oːtṇt tu əv bin ˙laiiŋ in ðə ˎsʌn.
        'kudṇt ju əv bin ˙leiiŋ ðə 'teibļ?

Passive Voice

P 3 *Modal Direct of Accomplishment.*

        'ðis ˙medsin məs bi 'teikən wið ˙plenti əv ˌwoːtə.
        kən ðə 'rest bi ˙left til tə'moru?
        ju 'mʌsṇt bi ˙teikən ˙in bai ˎðat ˌould ˌtrik.
        'wount ju bi ˙peid til 'nekst 'mʌndi?

P 6 *Modal Perfect of Accomplishment.*

ðeɪ 'maɪt əv bɪn diˈleɪd baɪ ðə ˇfog.
'ʃal wi əv bɪn ˙mɪst baɪ ði /ʌðəz jet?
ðə 'letə 'meɪ not əv bɪn kəˈrektli əˈdrest.
'ɔːtn̩t ʃi tu əv bɪn ˇtould əbaut ði ˙aksɪdn̩t?

179 Modals in conditional clauses. It is often laid down that wɪl, ʃal, wud and ʃud are not used in conditional clauses, that is, in clauses introduced by if, ənˇles, prəˇvaidid or some other adverb or adverbial of condition, and rules are given for agreement of tenses between a principal clause and a subordinate conditional clause. A more accurate statement of the case is that modals are used freely in conditional clauses if their modal meaning is required, but they are not introduced merely as temporals to form a future or conditional tense.

The following examples of modals used in conditional clauses which are subordinate to principal clauses also containing modals will illustrate this point, and the explanations given in brackets (which, it will be noticed, are all in the present or past tense) will make the function of the modal clear.

if 'ju l luk ˙aːftə ðə ˌlʌgidʒ, 'ai l ˙get ðə ˇtikits.
    (wɪl = if you're willing to . . .)
if ˇhiː kən ˌduː it, 'sou kən ˇai.
    (kan = if he's able to . . .)
if 'ai meɪ ˌhelp, it | ˇsuːn bi ˌfiniʃt.
    (meɪ = if I'm allowed to . . .)
if ai ˇmʌst ˌvout, ai ʃ| 'vout əˇgeinst ju. . .
    (mʌst = if I'm obliged to . . .)
if i ˇɔːt tə ˌduː it, hi ˇwɪl.
    (ɔːt tu = if he has a moral obligation to . . .)
if ai ˇniːdn̩t ˌgou tə ˌwəːk, ai ˇʃaːnt.
    (niːdn̩t = if I'm not obliged to . . .)
if ju 'deənt ˙spiːk ˇfraŋkli, ju l riˇgret it ˌleitə.
    (deənt = if you're too diffident to . . .)
if ju d 'kiːp ˇstil, ai ʃəd ˇsuːn ˌfiniʃ.
    (wud = if you were willing to . . .)
if i ʃəd ˇkoːl, ai l 'giv im joː ˇmesidʒ.
    (ʃud = if by chance he were to . . .)

if ju kəd ˇweit ə ˌminit, ai d 'gou ˇwið ju.

    (kud = if it were possible for you to . . .)

if ai mait 'boru ə ˇkaː, ai ʃəd ˇsuːn bi ˌbak.

    (mait = if I were allowed to . . .)

The above list includes examples of all the modals except ʃal, which is semantically unsuited for use in conditional clauses, though it is possible to imagine somewhat far-fetched cases in which it might be used.

Below are shown some of the above examples with the modal meaning removed from the subordinate clause:

if 'juː luk ˙aːftə ðə ˌlʌgidʒ, 'ai l ˙get ðə ˇtikits.

if ˇai ˌhelp, it | ˇsuːn bi ˌfiniʃt.

if ju 'dount ˙spiːk ˌfraŋkli, ju l riˇgret it ˌleitə.

if ju 'kept ˌstil, ai ʃəd ˇsuːn ˌfiniʃ.

Similarly, the modal perfect tenses are used in conditional clauses only when the modal meaning is required. The modals most used in such cases are oːt, wud, ʃud, kud and mait.

Note that in the first of the following examples d stands for wud in both clauses.

if ju d əv ˇweitid ə ˌminit, ai d əv 'gon ˇwið ju.

if ai mait əv 'borud ə ˌkaː, ai ʃəd əv bin 'bak ˇsuːnə.

if i 'oːt tu əv bin ˇwəːkiŋ təˌdei, ðei d əv ˇtould əs sou.

if ʃi kəd əv bin 'kept ˌstil, ai ʃəd əv 'finiʃt ˇsuːnə.

The following examples show these four sentences with the modal meaning removed from the subordinate clause. Since the sentences contained past tense modals the tense now used is a past perfect, and the weak form d therefore stands for had in the conditional clause.

if ju d ˇweitid ə ˌminit, ai d əv 'gon ˇwið ju.

if ai d 'borud ə ˌkaː, ai ʃəd əv bin 'bak ˇsuːnə.

if i d bin ˇwəːkiŋ təˌdei, ðei d əv ˇtould əs sou.

if ʃi d bin 'kept ˌstil, ai ʃəd əv 'finiʃt ˇsuːnə.

Except in the case of three 1—2—1 verbs (§135) and various 1—1—1 verbs (§137) there is no fear of ambiguity in the weak form d, since wud is always followed by an infinitive and had by a past participle.

MEANINGS OF THE MODALS

180 Ordinary meanings. A semantic analysis of the twelve modals is necessarily complicated, because most of them have more than one meaning and some meanings can be expressed by more than one modal. The lists below, giving the principal meanings of the modals, are followed by simple examples with paraphrases to make the meanings clear, while the variations are considered in detail in §§181–9.

Affirmative:		*Negative:*	
wil	Willingness	wount	Unwillingness
ʃal	Obligation	ʃaːnt	Prohibition
kan	Ability	kaːnt	Inability
mei	Permission	meint	Prohibition
mʌst	Obligation	mʌsn̩t	Prohibition
oːt	Advisability	oːtn̩t	Inadvisability
(niːd)		niːdn̩t	Exemption
(deə*)		deənt	Diffidence
wud	Willingness	wudn̩t	Unwillingness
ʃud	Advisability	ʃudn̩t	Inadvisability
kud	Ability	kudn̩t	Inability
mait	Permission	maitn̩t	Prohibition

Examples of the affirmative meanings, except in the cases of niːd and deə, which are shown in the negative.

hi l ˋduː it.	He's willing to do it.
hi ʃl ˋduː it.	I promise to make (*or* let) him do it.
hi kən ˋduː it.	He's able (*or* has time) to do it.
hi mei ˋduː it.	He has permission to do it.
hi məs ˋduː it.	He's obliged to do it.
hi ˌoːt tə ˋduː it.	It's advisable for him to do it.
hi ˈniːdn̩t ˎduː it.	He isn't obliged to do it.
hi ˈdeənt ˎduː it.	He's too diffident to do it.
hi d ˋduː it.	He would be willing to do it.
hi ʃəd ˋduː it.	It would be advisable for him to do it.
hi kəd ˋduː it.	He would be able to do it.
hi mait ˋduː it.	(I said) he had permission to do it.

181 Alternative meanings. A number of modals have these. When they are used in these meanings the affirmative forms are always stressed, and therefore have no weak pronunciation, and the contracted negatives of mei and mait are not used in statements. These devices help to show which meaning is intended in contexts where there might otherwise be ambiguity.

Affirmative:		*Negative:*	
'wil	Wilfulness	'wount	Wilfulness
'wud	Wilfulness	'wudṇt	Wilfulness
'mei	Possibility	'mei not	Possibility
'mait	Possibility	'mait not	Possibility
'mʌst	Inference	'kaːnt	Negative Inference

Examples of the affirmative meanings, showing the stresses, and consequent strong forms of the modals.

hi 'wil ˋduː it.	He insists on doing it.
hi 'wud ˋduː it.	He insisted on doing it.
hi 'mei ˋduː it.	It's possible that he'll do it.
hi 'mait ˋduː it.	It's just possible that he'll do it.
hi 'mʌst əv ˋdʌn it.	I assume (*or* infer) that he's done it.

Negatives:

hi 'mei not ˋduː it.	It's possible that he isn't going to do it.
hi 'kaːnt əv ˋdʌn it.	I infer that he hasn't done it.

The modals ɔːt and ʃud suggest a rather less confident inference. See examples in §188.

182 Willingness and wilfulness. It is nearly always stated in English grammars that the meaning of wil is "wish, intention, resolution, determination or emphasis." All these renderings are misleading since affirmative conjugators are normally unstressed and the meaning of unstressed wil (with its weak forms | and l) is willingness to do something, while wount expresses unwillingness:

ai l 'send it ət ˏwʌns. = I'm willing to send it at once.
wil ju 'liːv wʌn fə 'miː? = Are you willing to leave one for me?
hi 'wount ˈkʌm ˏəːli. = He's unwilling to come early.

This last example might be interpreted by the more emphatic: "He's wilful, and persists in not coming early," which provides

the link that probably causes the confusion of the meanings of stressed and unstressed wil, since by reversing the vocabulary we need the stressed wil:

hi ˈwil ˈkʌm ˌleit. = He's wilful, and persists in coming late.

In order to arrive at the real normal meaning of wil it is essential to envisage it, not in isolation, where there is an automatic temptation to stress it, but in context, in its normal unstressed condition.

183 Willingness and the future. While, as we have seen in §182, the usual meaning of wil—wount is willingness—unwillingness, there are contexts in which it is not logical to introduce these meanings. In such cases the modal feeling disappears and these finites express a pure future—in other words, they are reduced to the function of temporals, and are, in fact, the finites that are most frequently used to form a future tense. The question whether these finites have modal meaning or not depends in some degree upon whether the sentence is a question or a statement and upon whether the subject is in the 1st, 2nd or 3rd person. On the other hand, it is not affected by whether the subject is singular or plural, or whether the finite is affirmative or negative.

The way in which the modal and temporal functions of wil—wount are distributed in both questions and statements is tabulated below. Examples are given, with explanations of the meanings usually attached to them, and reasons are adduced for the distribution shown.

[*Meanings of* wil—wount *in Questions.*]

Modal questions	Person	Temporal questions
—	1st	—
wil juː?	2nd	wil juː?
wil ðei (hiː, ʃiː, it)?	3rd	wil ðei (hiː, ʃiː, it)?

Modal questions.

1. It is obviously absurd to ask someone else if one is willing to do something; there is therefore no modal question in the 1st person.

2. A question whether the hearer is willing to do something is very natural and common, thus:

ˈwil ju ˈhelp mi? = Are you willing to help me?

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3. The hearer may be better informed than the speaker about the willingness of a third person to do something ; we therefore have :

'wil ʃi 'help mi? = Is she (Will she be) willing to help me? (You know her better than I do.)

Temporal questions.

1. Again, it is absurd to ask someone what one is going to do in the future ; there is therefore no temporal question in the first person except for the idioms wil ai 'duː? meaning "Am I sufficiently well dressed for the occasion?" and wil 'ai duː? meaning "Do you think I can do the job satisfactorily?"

2. Questions may be asked about what the hearer will do in the future, in contexts in which there need be no suggestion of willingness, thus:

'wil ju bi ət 'houm tə'moru 'aːftə'nuːn? = Is it part of your programme to be at home tomorrow afternoon?

When it is desired to show that no modal meaning is intended in a situation where one might be understood, the aspect of activity is often used, thus:

'wil ju 'giv ðəm ə 'miːl? = Please give them a meal.   (Modal.)
'wil ju bi 'giviŋ ðəm ə 'miːl? = A request for information without any modal meaning.

3. In 3rd person questions there are many contexts that do not admit the idea of willingness, especially if the subject is inanimate:

'wil ʃi 'laik ðə 'buk?   'wil ðei ri'membə mi?
'wil it bi 'redi in 'taim?   'wount ðei bi 'ouvə'dʌn?

[*Meanings of* wil—wount *in Statements.*]

Modal statements	*Person*	*Temporal statements*
ai (wiː) wil.	1st	—
—	2nd	juː wil.
ðei (hiː, ʃiː, it) wil	3rd	ðei (hiː, ʃiː, it) wil

Modal statements.

1. A statement that the speaker is willing to do something is very natural and common, thus:

ai I 'duː it ət ˌwʌns. ⎱ = ⎰ I'm willing to do these things to
ai I 'siː ju təˌmoru. ⎰   ⎱ please you or because you wish it.

2. As one cannot tell the hearer what he is willing to do there is no modal statement in the 2nd person.

3. One may know better than the hearer what a third person is willing to do, and we may therefore have:

ˌhiː I 'duː it ət ˌwʌns. ⎱ = ⎰ I've asked him, and he's expressed
ˌhiː I 'siː ju təˌmoru. ⎰   ⎱ his willingness to do these things.

Temporal statements.

1. Careful speakers do not use **wil** as a temporal in 1st person statements. The position appears to be somewhat as follows. Some speakers of English feel modal force much more strongly than others, and in particular the modal force of **wil**. They feel that a sentence like: ai I bi 'pliːzd tə ˋsiː ju means "I'm willing to be pleased to see you," which is either pontifical or nonsensical, and they would therefore say: ai ʃI bi 'pliːzd tə ˋsiː ju, which states a fact without any modal undertone. Such speakers avoid using **ai wil** with verbs expressing feelings or involuntary mental processes, and in other cases where it is not suitable to express willingness to perform the act. On the other hand they take care to say **ai I** (ai wil) and **wi I** (wiː wil) when the action will affect the person addressed; they feel that ʃal would be impolite, being too decided—provided, of course, that the verb is not one expressing feelings.

2. Statements without any modal implication are often made about what will happen to the hearer or about how he will react to something:

ju 'wount ˙faind im ət ˙houm ˎˌnau. Pure information.
ju I ˋlaik ˌðat ˌnjuː ˌbuk. An expression of opinion.

3. In the 3rd person there are many situations in which a statement is made without any modal suggestion, especially if the subject is inanimate:

hi I bi 'veri ˌaŋgri wið ju. An expression of opinion.
it 'wount ˙laːst fər ˎˌevə. An expression of opinion.

The modal and temporal uses of **wud** correspond closely to those of **wil**, and the former finite could be used instead of the latter in any of the examples given above. The effect would be to make

the sentence sound more tentative or polite, and in some cases to suggest or introduce a condition, thus:

'wud ju 'help mi? Politely suggesting "if I asked you?"
'wud it bi ˙redi in 'taim? Under certain conditions.
ai d 'duː it ət ˌwʌns. —— if I were you.
it 'wudn̩t ˙laːst fər ˌˎevə. Under certain conditions.

An affirmative idiom using unstressed **wud** gives the meaning of custom or habit in the past; this is more literary than spoken:

ðei wud 'gou fər ə ˎwoːk in ði ˌiːvniŋz. = They used to go for a walk.

There is also an idiomatic use of stressed 'wud as a direct past tense, in which case it means "to persist in":

hi 'wud ˌaːgju əbaut ˌevriθiŋ. = He persisted in arguing.

Another idiomatic use of this modal is to express a protest against another person's action and to suggest that it was typical of that person. The finite then usually takes a falling tone:

'juː ˎwud ˌduː ˏðat.   'ðei ˎwud ˌmis ðə ˌtrein.

184 Obligation and the future. Another finite which may form a pure future tense under certain conditions is ʃal—ʃaːnt. Though the modal meanings of these affirmative and negative forms are obligation and prohibition respectively there are contexts in which it is not logical to introduce these meanings. In such cases the modal feeling disappears and the finites express a pure future—in other words, they are reduced to the function of temporals. While the modal and temporal uses of ʃal—ʃaːnt are subject to the same factors as operate in the case of wil, the arrangement is different, and on the modal side there is an added complication arising from the fact that ʃal suggests that the obligation is imposed by the 2nd person in questions and by the 1st person in statements, irrespective of the person used as the subject of the verb.

The way in which the modal and temporal functions of ʃal—ʃaːnt are distributed in both questions and statements is tabulated below. Reasons are adduced for the distribution shown and examples are given, with explanations of the meanings usually attached to them.

[Meanings of ʃal—ʃaːnt in Questions.]

Modal questions	Person	Temporal questions
ʃal ai (wiː)?	1st	ʃal ai (wiː)?
—	2nd	—
ʃal ðei (hiː, ʃiː, it)?	3rd	—

Modal questions.

1. The modal question ʃal ai? is a most important idiom conveying an offer to do something for somebody, usually the hearer. It is used even in the United States, where other uses of ʃal have been largely abandoned.

'ʃal ai 'help ju? = Would you like me to help you? If so, I will.
'ʃal wi 'teik ə 'taksi? = We'll take a taxi if you like.

In some cases ʃal ai? is a request for advice:

'witʃ wʌn ʃ| ai 'tʃuːz?   'wot ʃ| ai 'rait əbaut?

2. It is clearly absurd to ask someone if he will oblige himself to do something; there is therefore no modal question in the 2nd person.

3. The modal question in the 3rd person is an offer to get a third person to do something for the hearer if the latter wishes it.

'ʃal ðə 'meid 'briŋ ju ə 'kʌp əv 'kofi? = Would you like a cup of coffee? If so, I'll ask the maid to bring you one.
'ʃal ðə 'matə bi 'lukt 'intu? = Do you want the matter looked into? If so, I'll have that done.

Temporal questions.

1. In certain contexts ʃal ai? loses its ordinary modal meaning and becomes a question asking for the hearer's opinion on something concerning oneself:

'ʃal ai bi in 'taim? Asking for information.
'ʃal ai 'laik ðis 'buk? Asking for an opinion.

2. The question ʃal juː? is logically temporal and used to be employed freely, but for a good many years now it has fallen into disuse, having been replaced by 'aː ju 'gouiŋ tu?

3. There is no temporal question with ʃal in the 3rd person.

[*Meanings of ʃal—ʃaːnt in Statements.*]

Modal statements	Person	Temporal statements
—	1st	ai (wiː) ʃal
juː ʃal	2nd	—
ðei (hiː, ʃiː, it) ʃal	3rd	—

Modal statements.

1. One does not normally say that one is going to make oneself do something, and there is no modal statement in the 1st person.

2. In 2nd person statements ʃal—ʃaːnt are always strongly modal, conveying the idea of an undertaking given by the speaker. This may take the form of a threat of something unpleasant or a promise of something pleasant:

ju ʃl bi ˋpʌniʃt if ju ˌdount biˌheiv jəself.   Threat.
ju ˈʃaːnt ˈgou tə ðə ˋpaːti if ju ə sou ˌnoːti.   Threat.
ju ʃl ˈhav ə ˋbaisik‖ if ju ˌpaːs joːr igˌzam.   Promise.
ju ˈʃaːnt riˈgret haviŋ ˅helpt mi.   Promise.

3. In 3rd person statements ʃal—ʃaːnt are again strongly modal in the sense that the speaker undertakes to do something that affects the subject of the verb, this again amounting to a threat or a promise, according to the nature of the action.

hi ʃl bi ˋpʌniʃt if i ˌdʌznt biˌheiv imself.   Threat.
ʃi ˈʃaːnt get ə˅wei wið it.   Threat.
joː ˈʃuːz ʃl bi ˈredi in ən ˋauə.   Promise.
ðei ˈʃaːnt bi disˈtəːbd ə˅gein.   Promise.

Temporal statements.

1. In 1st person statements careful speakers use ʃal—ʃaːnt consistently in preference to wil—wount when it is desirable to avoid any suggestion that action is being taken for the benefit of someone else or because another person (possibly the hearer) wishes it to be taken.   Notice the contrasts:

ai ʃl ˈfoun ðəm ət ˌwʌns.   (On my own initiative.)
ai l ˈfoun ðəm ət ˌwʌns.   (Because they want to speak to me.)
ai ˋʃaːnt bi əˌwei ˌloŋ.   (This is for your information.)
ai ˋwount bi əˌwei ˌloŋ.   (I know you want me back soon.)

The other case in which ʃal is to be preferred in 1st person state-
ments (before verbs expressing feelings, etc.) has been dealt with
in §183.

2, 3. The finite ʃal is always modal in 2nd and 3rd person
statements.

Use of ʃal *with Multiple Subjects.*

If the 1st person pronoun forms part of a multiple subject ʃal is
not used in statements, being replaced by wil.

    'juː ənd ˙ai | bi 'hiəriŋ əbaut it ˌleitə.

    'ʃiː ənd ˙ai | bi 'fiːliŋ ˎtaiəd ˌaːftə ðə ˌdʒəːni.

    'dʒon, ˙meəri ənd ˙ai | 'niːd ˙moː ˎhelp.

Compare:

    wi ʃl bi 'hiəriŋ əbaut it ˌleitə.

    wi ʃl bi 'fiːliŋ ˎtaiəd ˌaːftə ðə ˌdʒəːni.

    wi ʃl 'niːd ˙moː ˎhelp.

In questions, however, ʃal is used in most cases where it would
be used with a single subject.

    ʃl 'juː ənd ˙ai 'staːt ʹnau?

    ʃl 'meəri ənd ˙ai iks'pekt ju fə ʹlʌntʃ?

    ʃl 'dʒon, ˙meəri ənd ˙ai 'entə˙tein ðə ʹgests?

The use of ʃud follows fairly closely that of ʃal, and this sub-
stitution could be made in the majority of the examples given in
this section. In some cases its use would be restricted to indirect
speech and in others it would suggest advisability rather than
obligation. Examples:

    'ʃud wi ˙teik ə ʹtaksi? = Would it be a good idea?

    'ʃud ðə ˙matə bi 'lukt ʹintu? = Ought it to be looked into?

    'ʃud ai ʹlaik ðis ˙buk? (If I were to read it?)

    hi 'sed ju ʃəd bi ˎpʌniʃt if ju ˌdidṇt biˌheiv jəself. (Indirect.)

    ju ˎpromist ðət ðei ˌʃudṇt bi disˌtəːbd əˎˏgein. (Indirect.)

    ai ˎtould ju ai ˌʃudṇt bi əˌwei ˌloŋ. (Indirect.)

185 **Ability, opportunity, permission, possibility.** These ideas
and their opposites are conveyed by the kan and mei families of
modals, but there is an ever-increasing tendency for the former to
encroach on the field traditionally occupied by the latter, to the
extent that in the speech of some people, particularly in the United

States, the **mei** family is virtually disappearing and the **kan** family is becoming so grossly overworked as to lead to confusion of meaning in some cases.

There are certain limitations as to the tenses in which these modals may be used, but the present-tense forms may always refer to the present and the past-tense forms to the conditional, in any of their meanings. The restrictions occur in references to the past and the future, and examples of these tenses are given in the following analysis, which attempts to show present-day practice among careful speakers of English.

Ability, particularly with reference to acquired skills.

Past	kud:	ai kəd 'woːk wen ai wəz 'tuː jiəz ˏould.
Fut.	None.	(Use wil (ʃal) bi eibḷ tu.)

Inability.

Past	kudṇt:	hi 'kudṇt ˙woːk til i wəz ˏθriː.
Fut.	None.	(Use wount (ʃaːnt) bi eibḷ tu.)

Opportunity, in the sense of ability to do something because time, one's duties or other circumstances permit it.

Past	None.	(Use woz (wəː*) eibḷ tu.)
Fut.	kan:	'kan ju ˙kʌm ənd 'siː mi ˙nekst ′wiːk?

Lack of opportunity.

Past	kudṇt:	ai ᵛlukt fə him, bət ai 'kudṇt ᵛfaind im.
Fut.	kaːnt:	ai m ᵛsori, bət ai 'kaːnt ᵛsiː ju təˏmoru.

Permission. The popular use of **kan** in this sense is widely accepted.

Past	None, except in indirect speech, then mait (kud).
Fut.	mei (kan): ju mei (kən) 'hav wʌn təᵛmoru.

Prohibition. The use of **kaːnt** in this sense is widely accepted.

Past	None, except in indirect speech, then maitṇt (kudṇt).
Fut.	meint (kaːnt): dei 'meint (kaːnt) hav ˙eni təˏmoru.

Possibility. In this meaning **mei** and **mait** are always stressed, and the latter may be used as a direct tense to suggest a more remote possibility than **mei**. A falling tone on either of these finites increases the suggestion of doubt.

Past   None, but see §§195 and 203.
Fut.   'mei :   ðei 'mei bi ˙ðeə ˙nekst ˌmʌnθ.
        'mait :   hi ˋmait ˌkʌm on ˋtjuːzdi.

Negative possibility.   Here mait not may be used as a present or future, to suggest a remote negative possibility.

Past   None, but see §§195 and 203.
Fut.   'mei not :   ðei 'mei not bi ˋðeə ˌnekst ˌwiːk.
        'mait not :   hi 'mait not ˋwont ə ˌholidi.

The substitution of kan for mei in the sense of possibility when the subject is inanimate and cannot therefore possess any "ability" is a comparatively modern innovation.   It is admissible in the passive voice, because it suggests that somebody has the ability to influence the inanimate subject.   Thus, ˋðat kən bi ˌdʌn means that somebody has the ability or the opportunity to do it.   On the other hand, a sentence in the active voice, such as 'ðis sitjuˌeiʃn̩ 'kan ('kud) ˙liːd tu ˌwoː suggests that the situation is endowed with an inherent ability to lead to war if it so desires, which is absurd.   The established form used in such a case, 'ðis sitjuˌeiʃn̩ 'mei ('mait) ˙liːd tu ˌwoː, merely suggests the possibility of war developing from the situation.

186   Pleading and reproach.   These two ideas are conveyed by using a special intonation pattern with the modals mait and niːdn̩t. The former asks for something to be done that is not being done, and the latter asks for the cessation of something that is being done.   The special intonation pattern that gives these meanings consists of a fall on the modal, followed by a Tune III later in the sentence.

Pleading.

This is conveyed by using one of the three direct modal tenses, and is a plea for something to be done—or not done—in the present or future.   It may take on the nature of a protest.

ju ˋmait ˌweit fə ˏmiː.   ju ˋniːdn̩t bi sou ˏruːd.
ðei ˋmait bi ˌhelpiŋ tə ˏpak.   ðei ˋniːdn̩t bi ˌθroun əˏwei.

Reproach.

This is conveyed by using one of the three perfect modal tenses, and is a protest against some action or lack of action in the past.

    ðei ˈmait əv ˌkʌm ˌəːliə.   ðei ˈniːdn̩t əv ˌteikən it ˇoːl.

    ju ˈmait əv bin ˌhelpiŋ mi.   hi ˈniːdn̩t əv bin ˇtould.

For the meaning of this structure without the special tune, see §203.

187 Obligation—exemption and permission—prohibition. The relationship between these four ideas can be shown in diagrammatic form:
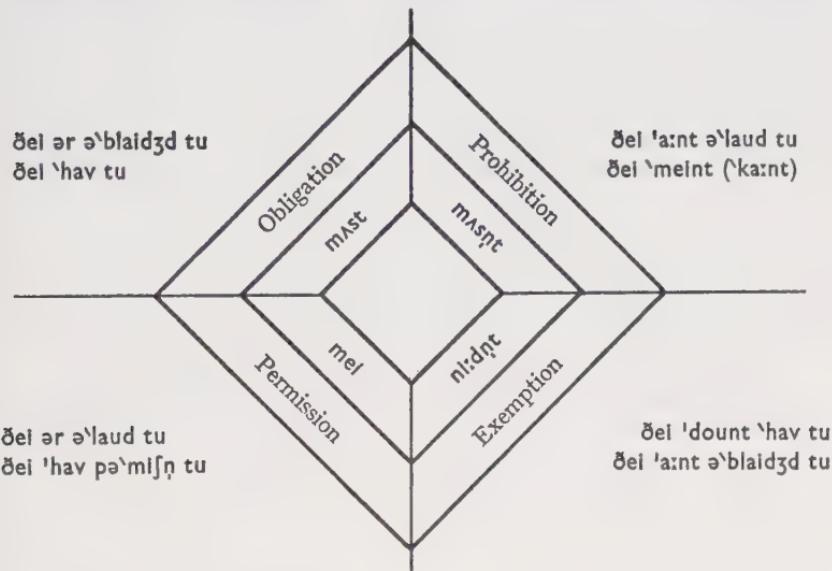
The top half of the diagram represents constraint on the subject; on the left constraint to do something (obligation) and on the right constraint not to do something (prohibition).

The bottom half of the diagram represents freedom for the subject; on the left to do what he wants to do (permission) and on the right not to do what he doesn't want to do (exemption).

The diagram also shows that though exemption is the diametrical opposite of obligation (expressed by mʌst) it is not expressed by the negative form of this modal, but by niːdn̩t, while mʌsn̩t expresses prohibition, the diametrical opposite of permission, which is expressed by mei. Stated simply:

The opposite of mʌst is niːdn̩t;
The opposite of mʌsn̩t is mei.

Other expressions that are more or less synonymous with the four modals shown in the diagram are given in each corner. For the affirmative modal niːd, see §198.

188 Inference. This is a secondary meaning of mʌst, oːt and ʃud, which is differentiated from their primary meanings by their being stressed in all cases. An example of this distinction made by means of stress is given below. When they are used in this sense these modals may be regarded as equivalent to the clause: "It is logical to suppose that. . . ." They may express this meaning before any of the six infinitives, but are probably most frequently used before the three perfect infinitives. The modal mʌst is more common in this sense than the other two. Examples:

it 'ʃud bi əbaut 'haːf paːst ˋnain, ˏnau, ai ˙θiŋk.
ju 'mʌs bi kən˙fjuːziŋ mi wið 'sʌmwʌn ˏels.
ðei ˋleft ət ˏeit, sou ðei ˋoːt tu əv əˌraivd bai ˏnau.
'sʌmbədi 'mʌst əv bin ˋtoːkiŋ əbaut mi.
'ðis ˙ruːm 'mʌs bi riˈzəːvd fə ˋmembəz.
ðə 'diskaunt 'mʌst əv bin ˙teikən ˙of oːlˋredi.

Notice that the fifth of the above examples means "I assume that this room is reserved for members," whereas

'ðis ˙ruːm məs bi riˈzəːvd fə ˋmembəz

means "I give orders that this room is to be reserved for members."

When making a negative inference the logic of this structure is preserved by changing from these modals to kaːnt or kudn̩t, to give the meaning: "It isn't possible that. . . ." Examples:

it ˋkaːnt bi əz ˏleit əz ˏˈðat, ˋʃuəli !
ju ˋkaːnt bi ˏθiŋkiŋ əv ˇliːviŋ jet !
ðei 'ounli ˋleft ət ˏeit, sou ðei ˋkudn̩t əv əˌraivd ˏjet.
ju ˋkaːnt əv bin ˏweitiŋ əz ˏloŋ əz ˇai hav.
'ðat ˙hat ˋkaːnt bi inˌtendid tə bi ˏˈwoːn !
ðə 'diskaunt ˋkaːnt əv bin ˏteikən ˏof oːlˏredi.

In American speech mʌsn̩t is in general use instead of kaːnt in this context.

Inference of a slighter character, giving the feeling of: "It's my impression that . . .", is conveyed by an unstressed wil or wud, but care must be taken in using this structure, as in some cases it gives a dialectal flavour to the speech, especially in the direct tenses. Examples:

it | bi əbaut 'haːf paːst ˈnain, ˌnau.
'sʌmbədi | əv bin ˈtoːkiŋ əbaut mi.
ðə 'diskaunt | əv bin 'teikən ˈof oːlˈredi.
ðei 'left ət ˅eit, sou ðei d əv ə'raivd bai ˈten.

189 Contrary implication. When used before a perfect infinitive some of the modals refer to the past and carry a contrary implication, that is, the affirmative suggests that the action did not take place, while the negative supposes that it did. These modals are:

Affirmative: oːt, wud, ʃud, kud, mait.

Negative: oːtṇt, niːdṇt, wudṇt, ʃudṇt, kudṇt, mait not.

The following are examples of sentences containing this implication:

Affirmative:

hi 'oːt tu əv bin ˈweitiŋ fər əs.   (but he wasn't—or isn't)
ðə 'doktə wəd əv ˈkʌm if ju d ˌkoːld im.   (but as you didn't, he didn't)
ai 'ʃud əv ˈnoun ju d bi ˌleit.   (but it didn't occur to me)
wi 'kud əv bin ˈwoːkiŋ ˌhoum.   (instead of waiting for a taxi)
ju 'mait əv bin 'badli ˈhəːt.   (but you weren't)

Negative:

ju 'oːtṇt tu əv ˈtould ðəm.   (but you did)
ai 'niːdṇt əv ˈwʌrid sou ˌmʌtʃ.   (but I did)
it 'wudṇt əv bin ˈbroukən if ju ˌhadṇt ˌmuːvd it.   (but you did, and it was)
ðei 'ʃudṇt əv iksˈpektid əs.   (but they did)
ju ˈkudṇt əv bin ˌθiŋkiŋ ˅ðat !   (but evidently you were)
hi 'mait not əv riˈmembəd əs.   (but he did)

190   Specific verbs resembling modals.   There are a few verbs that have the same form as some of the modals.   They are, of course, all specific verbs, and as such have a full set of tenses and verbals, including the infinitive.   They all form their past tense and past participles regularly and the 3rd person of the present tense takes the s-form.   Though some of them are little used, the student should know of their existence in order that he should not be mystified when he comes across them.   They are:

> tə wil   = to exert power over somebody or to leave property by will or testament.
> tə kan   = to preserve food by putting it into a sealed metal container.
> tə mei   = to gather hawthorn flowers in the month of May.
> tə mʌst = to become musty or spoilt by damp, to moulder.
> tə niːd   = to want, to require.
> tə deə* = to have enough courage or effrontery to do something.

The last two verbs have meanings similar to those of the corresponding modals and may be used instead of them.   Unlike the modals, they can be used in affirmative sentences and are conjugated with duː, dʌz and did.   They may take nouns as objects, but when they are followed by a verb in the infinitive this is preceded by tu, always after niːd and usually after deə*.

There is also a verb tə niːd (spelt knead) which means to work up a mixture of powder and liquid (e.g., flour and water) into a firm mass by pressing and moving it.

FORMS OF THE MODALS

191   Strong, weak and contracted forms.   Seven of the affirmative modals have various weak forms, used in certain phonetic and grammatical contexts which are described in detail in §§192–204, examples being given of their use.

A distinction has to be made between modals whose affirmative forms are basically unstressed (i.e., unstressed unless there is a special reason for stressing them) and those that are basically stressed (i.e., always stressed, even when there is no special reason for stressing them).   This distinction is important because some of the modals have more than one meaning, and the presence or

absence of stress—and consequently of weakening in some cases—
is a factor in indicating which meaning is intended.

Since the negative modals are only very occasionally unstressed
they have no weak forms properly so called, but in certain cases
they may undergo elisions or assimilations. These are described
in §204. The normal negative forms, which are otherwise invariable,
are best referred to as contracted forms, to distinguish them from
the two-word forms (consisting of the affirmative finite followed by
the adverb **not**) which are used in formal written English.

The twelve modals will now be considered in detail. The examples
in which the various pronunciations are given have been chosen to
present the widest possible variety of tenses, thus providing a
reasonably complete guide to the use of these important conjugators.

192 wil—wount. Weak forms |, l. When this modal is used
in the meaning of willingness—unwillingness it is basically un-
stressed and the weak forms are used. In the meaning of wilfulness
it is basically stressed and the weak forms are not used. In the
former meaning and as a pure future it is used freely before all
the six infinitives.

Negative form.

wount in all cases:

ˋðei ˌwount ˌtel ju.　　　　　ˈwount ðei bi ˙haviŋ ˊdinə?

ˈwount ʃi əv ˊweitid?　　　　ju ˈwount bi əˈlaud ˋin.

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

wil in all cases:

ˈwil ju ˊweit fə mi?　　　　　ˈwil it əv bin disˊtroid?

ˈjuː ˏwil bi ˌteikiŋ ə ˌrisk!　　ðei ˈwil ˙peint ˙evriθiŋ ˏred.

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

wil (1) when not followed by a specific verbal:

ˋhiː ˌmait ˏkʌm, bət ai ˈdount ˙θink �ˇʃiː wil.

ˋwiː ʃl əv ˌfiniʃt, bət ˈweðə ˇjuː wil iz ˋdautʃl.

wil (2) in initial positions:

wil ˊdʒon bi ˙kʌmiŋ?　　　　wil ˈjuː bi ˙peid ˊtuː?

l after pronouns ending in a vowel:

ju l ˈfaind it in ˏðeə.　　　　ˋhiː l əv ˌfiniʃt ˌfəːst.

ʃi l bi ˈbroːt bai ˏkaː.　　　ˈhuː l bi ˙pleiiŋ ˋðis ˌpiːs?

ǀ (or ǝl) in all other cases:

'witʃ ǀ ju ˎhav?   'meǝri ǀ ǝv bin ˎwǝːkiŋ tǝˌdei.
it ǀ ǝv bin ˎklouzd.   'ðis ǀ ǝv 'toːt ju ǝ ˎlesn̩.

193   ʃal—ʃaːnt. Weak forms ʃ|, ʃ|. Whether it means obligation —prohibition or is used as a pure future this modal is basically unstressed. It can, with certain limitations as to person, be used before all the six infinitives.

Negative form.

ʃaːnt in all cases:

'ʃaːnt wi bi 'leit?   ai 'ʃaːnt ǝv ˏfiniʃt.
'ʃaːnt ai bi di'leiiŋ ju?   'ʃaːnt wi ǝv ˙had i'nʌf bai ðen?

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

ʃal in all cases:

ˏwot 'ʃal ai ˏduː?   ai 'tel ju ai ˎʃal ǝv ˏdʌn it!
'wiː ˏʃal bi ˏleit!   'ʃal ai bi 'teliŋ im ǝ˙baut it?

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

ʃal when not followed by a specific verbal:

ˎhiː ˏmei not bi ˏstʌdiiŋ, bǝt ˇai ʃal bi.
ˎjuː ǀ ˏlaik it, bǝt weðǝ ˇwiː ʃal iz ˎdautf|.

ʃ| sometimes before a vowel:

ʃ| 'ai ˙kari it?   'wot ʃ| ai ˏduː?
wi ʃ| ǝv ˎfiniʃt bai ˏten ǝˌklok.

ʃ| (or ʃǝl) in all other cases:

ʃ| wi 'aːsk ðǝm tǝ 'tiː?   it ʃ| bi 'dʌn ǝt ˏwʌns.
ai ʃ| ǝv ˎleft bai ˏðen.   wi ʃ| bi ˎsteiiŋ wið ðǝm.
'veri ˇsuːn wi ʃ| ǝv bin 'weitiŋ fǝ ˙haːf ǝn ˎauǝ.
wi ʃ| ǝv bin ˎsiːn biˌfoː wi kǝn isˌkeip.

194   kan—kaːnt. Weak form kǝn. Whether it means ability —inability or opportunity—lack of opportunity, this modal is basically unstressed. For kaːnt meaning negative inference, see §196.

Negative form.

ˈkaːnt in all cases:

'kaːnt ju ˙weit til təˈmoru?   ʃi 'kaːnt ˙riːd wiðaut ˇglaːsiz.
'kaːnt ju bi ˙getiŋ ˙on wið joː ˈwəːk?
ðə 'paːs| 'kaːnt bi ˙poustid til təˇmoru.

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

kan in all cases:

'kan ju ˙tʌtʃ ðə ˈsiːliŋ?—ˋjes, ai ˋkan.
hi ˇkan bi ˙veri ˋnaːsti.—ˈkan i?
'kan ai ˈhelp ju?—ju 'kan if ju ˇlaik.

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

kan when not followed by a specific verbal:

ˋðat wʌn ˌkaːnt bi ˌmendid, bət ˇðis kan bi.
ˋjuː ˌkaːnt ˌduː it, bət ˇai kan.

kən in all other cases:

wi kən 'aːsk ðəm tə ˋtiː.   kən ʃi bi 'tould əbaut it ˈnau?
ðei kən 'ounli ˙stei fər ə ˇwiːk.
ai 'dount ˋθiŋk wi kən ˌduː it, bət wi kən ˇtrai.

195   mei—meint—mei not.   No established weak forms.   This modal has two regular meanings.

a. Permission—Prohibition.

When it is used in these meanings this modal is basically unstressed.   It is sometimes used in the passive voice and in the aspect of activity, but never in the perfect tenses.

Negative form.

meint in all cases:

ju 'meint ˙hav eni ˌmoə.
'meint ðis ˙teib| bi ˈmuːvd?—ˋnou, it ˋmeint.

Affirmative form.

mei in all cases:

'mei wi ˈsmouk?—ˋjes, ju ˌmei.
ˋhiː ˌmʌsn̩ ˌdʒoin ˌin, bət ˇjuː mei.
mei 'ai bi 'leiiŋ ðə ˙teib| wail 'juː ə ˈkukiŋ?
mei ðə 'klaːs bi disˈmist?—it 'mei if ju ˇlaik.

b. Possibility.

In this meaning the modal is basically stressed and the contracted negative form is not used in statements. The direct tenses refer to the present or the future, the perfect tenses to the past. All six infinitives are used.

Negative form.

meint sometimes in questions:

'meint ʃi əv əˑraivd wail wi wər ˈaut?

mei . . . not sometimes in questions:

'mei ðei ˑnot bi 'ðeər oːlˈredi? 'mei it ˑnot bi 'tuː ˈleit?

mei not in all statements:

hi 'mei not ˑwont tə ˎweit fər əs.

'dʒon 'mei not əv əˎraivd ˏjet.

ðei 'mei not əv bin iksˎpektiŋ əs.

ʃi 'mei not əv bin ˑhəːt veri ˎbadli.

Affirmative form.

mei in all cases:

hi 'mei 'wont əs ðeər ˎəːli.

ai 'mei bi 'teikiŋ ðə ˑtʃildrŋ əˎbroːd.

ju 'mei bi ˎwontid ðis ˏaːftəˏnuːn.

wi 'mei əv ˑmist ðə 'laːst ˏbʌs.

ʃi 'mei əv bin ˎlukiŋ fər əs.

it 'mei əv bin ˑsent tə ðə 'roŋ əˎdres.

196   mʌst and its opposites.   Weak forms məs, məst.   This modal has two regular meanings.

a. Obligation—Prohibition.

This antithesis is expressed by mʌst—mʌsn̩t, the weak forms being used, as the modal is basically unstressed. It is found frequently in the passive voice, infrequently in the aspect of activity and never in the perfect tenses.

Negative form.

mʌsn̩t in all cases:

ju 'mʌsn̩t ˎrisk it.   ˎwai ˏmʌsn̩t ai bi ˏpleiiŋ?

'ðis ˑbuk 'mʌsn̩t bi ˑteikən əˎwei.

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

mʌst when not followed by a plosive:

'mʌst ju ˈmeik ˈoːl ðat ˈnoiz? ju 'mʌst ˈstop ˇkritisaiziŋ mi.
'mʌst it bi ˈfiniʃt təˈdei?—ˇjes, it ˇmʌst.

mʌs before plosives:

ju 'mʌs bi ˈmoː ˇkeəfl. ˇðat s ˌsʌmθin ai ˇmʌs ˌduː.

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

mʌst when not followed by a specific verbal:

ˇjuː ˌniːdn̩t ˌstei, bət 'ai ˇsəːtn̩li mʌst.

məst when not followed by a plosive:

wi məst 'oːl duː auə ˇbest. ju məst 'weit til təˈmoru.

məs before plosives:

wi məs 'gou ət ˌwʌns. ai məs bi ˇgouiŋ ˌnau.
it məs bi 'finiʃt təˌdei.

b. *Inference—Negative Inference.*

These ideas are expressed by a heterogeneous collection of modals:

Affirmative:	mʌst	Negative:	kaːnt
Interrogative:	kan	Int.-Neg.:	meint

In this meaning all these modals are basically stressed and no weak forms are found. They are used freely with all the six infinitives.

Negative form in questions.

meint in all cases:

ˇwai ˌmeint ʃi əv əˌraivd? 'meint it bi inˈtendid fə ˈjuː?

Negative form in statements.

kaːnt in all cases:

ju 'kaːnt ˌmiːn ˌðat! ðei ˇkaːnt bi ˌhoupiŋ tə ˇwin!
hi ˇkaːnt əv ˌdʌn it ˌjet. ju 'kaːnt əv bin ˇlisniŋ.
it ˇkaːnt bi ˌsould oːlˇredi. ʃi 'kaːnt əv bin ˇtould əbaut it.

Affirmative form in questions.

kan in all cases:

'kan it bi 'truː?   'kan ðei bi 'foluiŋ əs?
'kan wi əv ˙mist ðə 'təːniŋ?   'wot ˙kan ðei əv bin ˏtoːkiŋ
'kan ðei bi 'marid?   əbaut?
'kan it əv bin ˙teikən ə'wei?

Affirmative form in statements.

mʌst when not followed by a plosive:

'ðat ˙mʌst ə'noi ðəm.   'ðat ˏmʌst əv ˏgivn̩ ðəm ə ˏʃok.
ʃi 'mʌst əv bin ˙liviŋ in ˙iŋglənd fər əbaut ə ˋjiə.

mʌs when followed by a plosive:

it 'mʌs ˙teik ə 'loŋ ˋtaim tə get ˏevriθiŋ ˏredi.
joː 'sistə ˙mʌs bi ə'traktiŋ ə 'lot əv ə'tenʃn̩ in ˏðat ˏdres.
ju 'mʌs bi ˙taiəd ˋaut ˏaːftə ðat ˏloŋ ˏwoːk.

197   oːt—oːtn̩t. No weak forms. This modal means, according
to context, anything from moral obligation to mere advisability.
It nearly always has some degree of stress, whatever its meaning.
It is used freely before all the six infinitives.

Negative form.

oːtn̩t in all cases:

'oːtn̩t ai tə 'foun ðəm?   ju ˋoːtn̩t tu əv ˏwʌrid əbaut ˏðat.
'oːtn̩t ju tə bi ˙getiŋ 'redi? ʃi 'oːtn̩t tə bi ə˙laud tə ˋduː it.
'oːtn̩t ju tu əv bin ˙duːiŋ joː 'houmwəːk?
'ðis ˙suːp 'oːtn̩t tu əv bin ˋboild sou ˏloŋ.

Affirmative form.

oːt in all cases:

'oːt ai tə 'sain ðis ə˙griːmənt?
ai 'θiŋk wi ˙oːt tə bi ˋstaːtiŋ ˏsuːn.
'oːt wi tu əv ˙kʌm sou ˙faː wið'aut ˙teliŋ ði 'ʌðəz?
ai 'oːt tu əv bin ˙digiŋ ðə ˋgaːdn̩, bət ai wəz 'tuː ˏtaiəd.
'oːt ðis ˙diʃ tə bi ˙səːvd 'hot oː ˏkould?
'ðis ˙wuːnd 'oːt tu əv bin ə˙tendid tu ət ˋwʌns.

This modal is sometimes used in the affirmative instead of mʌst to suggest an inference or a probability:

ai 'θink ˙ðis ˙buk 'oːt tə bi ˙raːðər ˎintristiŋ.

ðei ˎstaːtid ˏəːli, sou ðei 'oːt tə bi ˎðeə bai ˏnau.

198 niːd—niːdṇt. No weak forms. As shown in §187, the negative form of this modal expresses exemption from an obligation and is the opposite of mʌst. It is used before all the six infinitives, though rather less frequently with those of the aspect of activity. The affirmative form is never used unless there is an interrogative, negative, near negative or dubitative element in the sentence. This element may be in the same clause as the modal, or in a principal clause on which the modal clause depends.

Negative form.

niːdṇt in all cases:

'niːdṇt ai ˏweit fə ðəm?—ˎnou, ju ˎniːdṇt.

ˎwai ˏniːdṇt ju ˏaːnsə ðə ˏletə?

'niːdṇt ˏeni əv ðə ˙men bi ˙peid?

ju ˎniːdṇt ˏboðər əbaut ˏðat.

it 'niːdṇt bi ˙dʌn təᵛdei.

Affirmative form.

niːd in all cases:

In interrogative sentences:

'niːd ai ˙sei eni ˏmoə?   'wai niːd ju ˎboðə wið it?

'niːd ðei ˙stei eni ˏloŋgə?   'hau ˙loŋ niːd wi ˎkiːp ðəm?

With negative or near negative subject:

'noubodi niːd ᵛnou əbaut it.   'ounli ˎtuː əv ju niːd ˏstei.

'niːd ˏnʌn əv əs ˙weit?

With negative or near negative object:

sou ai niːd 'sei nou ˎmoə.   ai niːd sei 'veri litḷ ᵛmoə.

'niːd wi ˙tʃeindʒ ˏnʌθiŋ?

With negative or near negative adverb:

ju niːd 'nevə ᵛwʌri əbaut it.   ai niːd 'haːdli ˙sei eni ᵛmoə.

'niːd ai ˏnevə ˙weit fə ðəm?   ju niːd 'skeəsli aːsk ᵛwai.

After a principal clause with a negative or dubitative element:

'noubodi ˋsed ʃi niːd ˌstel.

'haːdli ˋenibodi ˌfelt wi niːd ˌaːnsə ðə ˙letə.

ðei ˌtould ˋnoubodi ðət wi niːd ˌbriŋ auə ˌtikits.

ai 'dount sə˙pouz ðei niːd 'weit eni ⌄loŋə.

ai 'haːdli ˙θiŋk ju niːd 'kʌm ˙bak tə⌄moru.

ai 'daut weðə wi niːd ˋboðər əbaut it eni ˌloŋə.

ai m 'not ˋʃuə weðə wʌn niːd ˋtip ðə ˌweitə.

199 deə*—deənt. No weak forms. The negative form of this modal expresses feelings ranging from mere diffidence to outright fear. Its use is largely confined to the present tense in the aspect of accomplishment; it is met with occasionally in the perfect of the same aspect, but it is very rare in the aspect of activity and in the passive voice. The affirmative form is used only in similar conditions to those described for niːd in §198.

Negative form.

deənt in all cases:

'deənt ju ˙tel im ðə 'truːθ?   ai 'deənt ˋtel ju wot ʃi ˌsed.

ˋwai ˌdeənt ju ˌtel im?   wi ˋdeənt ˌiːt eni ⌄moə.

Affirmative form.

deə before consonants, deər in front of vowels.

In interrogative sentences:

d ju 'θiŋk i ˙deə 'duː it?   'hau ˋdeə ju ˌtoːk tə mi laik ˌðat

'deər ai ˙teik ðə 'risk?   'deər 'eni əv ju ˙aːnsə mi?

With negative or near negative subject:

'nouwʌn ˙deə ˋtoːk əbaut it.   'haːdli ⌄eniwʌn ˙deə ˋtrai it.

'deə 'nʌn əv ju ˙spiːk ˙aut?

With negative or near negative object:

mai 'frendz ˙deə duː ˋnʌθiŋ.   hi 'deər ə˙tempt 'haːdli ˋeniθiŋ.

With negative or near negative adverb:

ðei 'nevə ˙deər ə⌄pouz əs.   ai 'haːdli ˙deə ˋtel ju eni ˌmoə.

After a principal clause with a negative or dubitative element:

ai 'dount ˙θiŋk ʃi ˋdeə ˌgou bai əˌself.

ai 'wʌndə weðər i ˙deə ˙teik ə'nʌðə wʌn.

ai 'daut weðə ðei ˋdeər əˌkjuːz im əv dis⌄onisti.

One affirmative phrase: ai 'deə ˌsei, survives as a common idiom meaning "I think it's possible (or likely)," and a similar idiom: ai 'deə ˌsweə*, is heard very occasionally.

200 wud—wudṇt. Weak forms wəd, d, ud or əd. Some speakers prefer to use ud rather than əd, especially if there is a possibility of confusion between wud and had, as is the case when a specific verb has identical forms for the infinitive and past participle, e.g., it ud kʌm (it would come) and it əd kʌm (it had come). The weak forms are not used when this modal has the meaning "insisted on." The modal is used freely before all the six infinitives.

Negative form.

wudṇt in all cases:

'wudṇt it bi ˙betə tu 'weit? hi 'wudṇt ˈtel mi ˌwot i ˌwontid. ˈjuː mait ˌlaik it, bət ˇhiː wudṇt.

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

wud in all cases:

'wud ju 'weit ə ˙moumənt? 'ðat ˌwud əv bin ə ˌgud ai ˌdiə.

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

wud when not followed by a specific verbal:

ˈðei wudṇt inˌdʒoi it, but ˇjuː wud, ai θiŋk.

wəd in initial positions:

wəd ju 'laik sm̩ ˙moː 'tiː? wəd ðei əv 'laikt ə ˙fjuː 'moə? wəd 'oːl ðə ˙boiz əv bin ə'laud ˙in?

d after vowels:

ˈmeəri d əv ˌlaikt ðəm. ðei d 'kʌm if ju ˇaːskt ðəm.

ud (or əd) in all other cases:

'wen ud ju 'laik tə ˌkʌm? 'dʒon ud bi ˈweitiŋ fər əs. ˈðat ud əv bin ˌnais. 'ðat ud əv bin ˈfoːsiŋ ði ˌiʃu. 'witʃ ˙geit ud bi ˌklouzd? ði 'ʌðəz ud əv bin ˈteikən.

201 ʃud—ʃudṇt. Weak forms ʃəd, ʃd. This modal is basically unstressed, but must be stressed in the 1st person if it is to convey its

modal meaning, since in that person the unstressed form is a normal temporal conjugator of the "conditional" tenses. In any case it is used freely before all the six infinitives.

Negative form.

ʃudn̩t in all cases:

'wai ˋʃudn̩t ai ˌmiːt ðəm?   'ʃudn̩t wi bi ˙getiŋ ′redi?
ʃi 'ʃudn̩t əv ˋweitid fə mi.   ju 'ʃudn̩t əv bin ˙draiviŋ sou ˋfaːst.
it 'ʃudn̩t bi ˙teikən əˋwei.   'ʃudn̩t ðei əv bin ′tould əbaut it?

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

ʃud in all cases:

ju 'ʃud əv ˋnoun ˌðat.   'ʃud ai bi ˙putiŋ ðə ′θiŋz əˋwei?

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

ʃud when not followed by a specific verbal:

ˋjuː ˌwount ˌduː it əz ˌwel əz ˅ai ʃud.

ʃəd or ʃd in all other cases:

ai ʃəd ˋlaik wʌn əv ˌðouz veri ˋmʌtʃ.
wi ʃd əv 'siːn ˅betə frəm ˙ʌp ˋðeə.
wi ʃəd bi əˋraiviŋ bai ˌnau if wi d 'staːtid ˌəːliə.
ju ʃd əv bin 'getiŋ ˙redi fə ðə ˋpaːti.
'ðat ˙medsin ʃəd bi ˙teikən in 'plenti əv ˌwoːtə.
ai ʃd əv bin 'drivn̩ ˙mad bai də ˋnoiz if ai d ˌsteid.

The following two pairs of examples will show the difference between the use of the strong and weak forms in the first person:

wi ʃd əv ˋritn̩ tə ju if wi d ˌnoun joːr əˌdres.
wi 'ʃud əv ˋritn̩ tə ju, bət wi wə 'tuː ˋbizi.
ai ʃd əv 'teikən ˙ðat ˙medsin ˋəːliər if ju ˌhadn̩t ˌstopt mi.
ai 'ʃud əv ˙teikən ðat ˙medsin ˋəːliə, bət ai fəˋgot it.

The affirmative and negative forms of this modal can be used instead of mʌst and oːt tu to suggest an inference or a probability:

ðei 'ʃud bi ˋbak ˌsuːn.   ˋðat ʃud əv ˌgivn̩ ðəm ə ˌʃok.
ðei 'ʃudn̩t bi ˋloŋ, ˌnau.   ju ˋʃudn̩t ˌhav ˌmʌtʃ ˌtrʌbl̩.

202 kud—kudn̩t. Weak form kəd. This modal is basically unstressed except when it is used as a substitute for mait (but on this, see §185). It is used freely before all six infinitives.

Verbs

Negative form.

kudn̩t in all cases:

> ai ᵛlukt fər it, bət ai 'kudn̩t ᵛfaind it.
> ʃi ᵛkudn̩t əv ˌdʌn it, 'iːvn̩ if ʃi d ᵛtraid.
> 'kudn̩t ju bi ˙getiŋ ˙redi tə ′staːt?
> hi 'kudn̩t əv bin ˙θiŋkiŋ əv ˙wot i wəz ᵛduːiŋ.
> 'sʌtʃ ə ˙θiŋ 'kudn̩t bi ᵛθoːt ov!
> 'kudn̩t ˙ðis ˙letər əv bin 'poustid ′jestədi?

Affirmative form in stressed positions.

kud in all cases:

> 'kud ju ′hould ˙ðis fə mi? hi ᵛkud əv ˌdʌn it, if i d ᵛlaikt.
> 'ðis ˙paːs| ᵛkud bi ˌsent bai ᵛeaˌmeil.

Affirmative form in unstressed positions.

kud when not followed by a specific verbal:

> ᵛjuː ˌkudn̩t əv ˌdʌn it, bət ᵛai kud əv.

kəd in all other cases:

> 'weə kəd ai ˙bai wʌn əv ˌðiːz?
> ai kəd əv ᵛbroːt it if ai d ˌnoun ju ˌwontid it.
> wi kəd bi ᵛhelpiŋ ju wail wi ə ˌweitiŋ.
> ju kəd əv bin 'finiʃiŋ joː ᵛwəːk inˌsted əv ˌpleiiŋ.
> ðə 'miːt kəd bi ᵛboild if ju priˌfəːd.
> 'ðis 'foutəgraf kəd əv bin inᵛlaːdʒd wið ədˌvaːntidʒ.

203 mait—maitn̩t—mait not. No weak forms. This modal has two regular meanings.

a. Permission—Prohibition.

When it is used in these meanings this modal is basically unstressed, and the contracted form of the negative may be used. It occurs usually in indirect speech, replacing mei after a reporting verb in a past tense, though it also occurs in direct speech as a polite formula in making suggestions. It is very seldom found in the aspect of activity or in the perfect tenses.

Negative form.

maitn̩t in most cases:

> hi 'aːskt if i mait ᵛteik ðəm, ənd ai 'tould im i ᵛmaitn̩t.

Affirmative form.

mait in all cases:

ˋai ˌtould əː ʃi mait ˌkʌm wið əs.
ai ˋaːskt ju if it mait bi ˌθroun əˏwei.
'mait ai səˑdʒest ə ˏkomprəmaiz?
pə'haps wi mait 'liːv ðə ˑrest til təˋmoru.

b. Possibility.

In this meaning the modal is basically stressed and the contracted form of the negative is not used in statements. The modal is used indiscriminately in direct and indirect speech, and in the former it indicates more doubt than mei. It occurs freely before all the six infinitives.

Negative form.

maitn̩t in questions:

'maitn̩t ðei bi ˑweitiŋ fər əs ət ðə 'steiʃn̩?
'maitn̩t it əv bin 'θroun əˑwei bai mis'teik?

mait not usually in statements:

ai 'mait not ˑget tə ðə ˑsteiʃn̩ in 'taim tə ˑmiːt ðə ˏtrein.
ðei 'mait not əv inˋtendid tə ˏkʌm təˏdei.
ju 'mait not əv bin ˋtʃouzn̩ if ˏai ˌhadn̩t ˏrekəˏmendid ju.

Affirmative form.

mait in all cases:

ai 'tould im ai 'mait ˑluk ˑin 'nekst ˏwiːk.
ʃi 'mait əv ˑteikən əˋfens ət ˌwot ju ˌsed.
ðəi 'mait bi ˑweitiŋ fər əs tə ˋfoun ðəm.
ðei 'mait əv bin iksˑpektiŋ əs tə ˋkoːl on ðəm.
ju 'mait bi ˑsent tu ˋafrikə ˏnekst ˏjiə.
hi 'mait əv bin prəˋmoutid if i ˌhadn̩t riˏzaind.

204 **Special elisions and assimilations.** In rapid and familiar speech several of the modal finites may undergo special elisions (§12) and assimilations (§13) when they occur in certain phonetic contexts. While foreign students of English need not adopt these modifications (which are not often shown in phonetic transcriptions) they should be aware of their existence. They are therefore listed

below, and examples are given of contexts in which they may be heard.

Negative forms.

Normal	Before p, b or m	Before t, d or n	Before k or g
wount	woump, woum	woun	wouŋk, wouŋ
ʃaːnt	ʃaːmp, ʃaːm	ʃaːn	ʃaːŋk, ʃaːŋ
kaːnt	kaːmp, kaːm	kaːn	kaːŋk, kaːŋ
mʌsn̩t,	mʌsmp, mʌsm̩	mʌsn̩	mʌsŋ̩k, mʌsŋ̩
deənt	deəmp, deəm	deən	deəŋk, deəŋ

hi ˌwoump ˌbait ju.
ju 'kaːŋk ˙get ðəm ⱽhiə.
wi 'deən ˋdriŋk it.
ai ˋʃaːmp bi ˌloŋ.
ju 'mʌsŋ̩k ˙katʃ ˎkould.

ai 'ʃaːn ˙duː eni ⱽmoə.
ju ˋmʌsm̩ ˌput it ˌðeə.
ðei 'wouŋ ˋgiv əs ˌeni.
wi ˋkaːn ˌteik oːl ˌðat.
ʃi ˋdeəŋ ˌgou əˎwei.

The other modal negative forms may lose their final t when they are followed by a plosive or nasal consonant:

ju 'niːdn̩ ⱽboðər əbaut it.
ai 'kudn̩ ˙meik eniwʌn ˋhiə.

hi 'wudn̩ ˋduː eni ˌmoə.
it 'maitn̩ bi ə ˙bad aiˋdiə.

Affirmative forms.

ʃal   ʃ before wiː:
   'weə ʃ wi ˎgou?   'wot ʃ wi ˎduː?

ʃəd   ʃt before voiceless consonants
   ai ʃt f ˌθoːt sou.   ai ʃt ˋteik it if ˌai wə ˌjuː.

mei   me or mi when used in the sense of permission
   ju mi 'kʌm ˋin ˌnau.   ʃi me 'stei ˋhiər if ʃi ˌlaiks.

məs   məʃ before ʃ
   ju məʃ ˋʃeər it wið im.   ju məʃ 'ʃou mi ˙wot ju ˋmiːn.

kən   kəm before p, b or m
   ju kəm 'put it ˌðeə.   ai kəm 'briŋ ju wʌn 'nekst ⱽwiːk.

kən   kəŋ or kŋ̩ before k or g
   ˋai kŋ̩ ˌkari it.   ju kəŋ ˋgou ˌnau.

kəd   kt before t
   ai kt ˋtrai if ju ˌlaik.   wi kt 'təːn ˙raund ⱽhiə.

ANALYSIS OF THE TENSE SYSTEM

205   Kinds of specific verb. The specific verbs fall into two classes:

   a. Transitive verbs, which take an object:

     ai ˈkoːld ðə ˋdoktə.   həv ju ˈfild mai ˊglaːs?
     ˈdount ˈtʌtʃ ðə ˎflauəz.   ˈkaːnt ju ˈsiː ði ˊʌðəz?

   b. Intransitive verbs, which do not take an object:

     ˈsʌmbədi z ˋkoːliŋ.   ˈdid ðei ˈweik ˊʌp?
     hi ˈhazn̩t əˋraivd ˎjet.   ˈwount ju ˈkʌm təˊmoru?

The distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is important from the structural point of view, since only transitive verbs can be used in the passive voice.

206   Voice. There are two voices:

   a. The Active Voice, in which the grammatical subject performs the action:

     ai v ˈkoːld ðə ˋdoktə.   ʃl wi ˈfiniʃ ðə ˈhaus ˈnekst ˊwiːk?
     hi ˈdidn̩t ˋteik ðə ˌbuk.   ˈhavn̩t ju ˈsiːn ðə ˊmanidʒə?

   b. The Passive Voice, in which the grammatical subject suffers the action:

     ðə ˈbuk s bin ˈteikən əˎwei.   ðə ˈhaus wəz ˈfiniʃt ˈlaːst ˎwiːk.
     ðə ˋdoktə z bin ˌkoːld.   həz mai ˈglaːs bin ˊfild?

Intransitive verbs cannot be used in the passive voice, as the object of the active voice sentence is needed as the subject of the passive. The subject of the active voice sentence is usually omitted, but can be expressed if necessary as an agent, preceded by the preposition "by."

          ðə ˈdoktə z bin ˈkoːld (bai ˎmiː).
          həz mai ˈglaːs bin ˈfild (bai ˊjuː)?

The chief use of the passive, however, is to make statements when it is unnecessary or undesirable to name the doer of the action. It is much used in English where an active sentence with an impersonal subject, or a reflexive sentence, might be used in other languages, as in Fr. on dit, Sp. se dice, or Ger. man sagt corresponding to the English passive it is said.

207 Aspect. Verb tenses can be classified into two aspects, whose function is to show how the speaker is looking at the action named by the verb, or in other words to indicate what his chief interest in it is. The aspects are:

a. Aspect of Accomplishment, which is used when interest is focused on the performance (or non-performance) of the action. In the active voice no part of the verb tə biː enters into the formation of any of the tenses in this aspect:

d ju ˈlaik ′tʃiːz?   hi ˈdʌznt ˙kʌm hiər ˈevri ͜dei.

ˈhav ðei əˈraivd jet?   wiː l ˈmiːt ju in ͵taun.

b. Aspect of Activity, which is used when interest is focused on the occupation or activity (or non-activity) of the subject at the time referred to (whether explicitly or implicitly) in the sentence. Some part of the verb tə biː enters into the formation of all the tenses in this aspect, and in the active voice the tense always contains the present participle of the specific verb:

ˈaːnt ju ′dresiŋ jet?   ai ˈhavn̩t ˙bin ′lisniŋ tə ðəm.

ʃl ai bi ′siːiŋ ju ˙suːn?   wə ðei ˈhaviŋ ′lʌntʃ?

(Note. The tenses referred to in paragraph *b* above have been called at various times Imperfect, Continuous or Progressive Tenses. All these names are unsatisfactory, as they fail to indicate the real object of introducing the verb tə biː and the ing-form, which is to show that the speaker is interested in what the subject was, is or will be doing, and not in the accomplishment of the action.)

208 Time reference. In each Aspect there are two systems of referring to time, each with its own set of tenses. Their function is to show whether the action denoted by the verb is contemporary with, or anterior to, the time expressed or implied in the sentence. It will be convenient to refer to these tenses as:

a. The Direct (or Simple) Tenses, which refer directly to the action as being contemporary with the time in mind:

ˈdid ju ˙si im ′jestədi?   ðei l ˈgou ðeə tə͵moru.

ʃl ai ˈbriŋ it ′wið mi?   hi wəz ˈriːdiŋ ə ͵letə.

b. *The Perfect Tenses*, which indicate that the action took place at a time anterior to that in mind:

həd ju ɔːlˈredi ˈsiːn it?   ʃi ˈwount əv əˈraivd ˌjet.

ˈhavn̩t ju ˈfiniʃt jet?   ˋai kəd əv pəˌsweidid im.

209   Tense.   Strictly speaking, English has only two tenses to cover the past-present-future time continuum.   In the Active Voice there are Past and Present Tenses in each Time Reference, of which there are two in each Aspect, making eight tenses in all. Apart from occasional references to the future in some subordinate clauses, the past tenses are limited to indicating past time, but the present tenses are frequently used to refer to future time, particularly in the Aspect of Activity.   In these cases a future adverb is often inserted to avoid ambiguity.   The modal tenses are the ones most freely used in referring to future time, either factually or hypothetically, according to the modal used.

For convenience of reference a full list of verb tenses is given below, showing the number by which each tense is being identified. Corresponding tenses in the active and passive voices are given the same numbers, the two being distinguished by prefixing the letters A and P respectively.

Active	*Name of Tense*	*Passive*
A 1	Present Direct of Accomplishment	P 1
A 2	Past Direct of Accomplishment	P 2
A 3	Modal Direct of Accomplishment	P 3
A 4	Present Perfect of Accomplishment	P 4
A 5	Past Perfect of Accomplishment	P 5
A 6	Modal Perfect of Accomplishment	P 6
A 7	Present Direct of Activity	P 7
A 8	Past Direct of Activity	P 8
A 9	Modal Direct of Activity	———
A 10	Present Perfect of Activity	——
A 11	Past Perfect of Activity	——
A 12	Modal Perfect of Activity	——

USES OF THE TENSES

210   Limitations on the aspects.   There are some limitations on
the choice of one or other of the aspects.

The following are verbs which, except in the cases noted below,
are seldom, and in some cases never, used in the aspect of activity.

Mental States	*Emotional States*	*Possession, etc.*
nou	ə'doə*	hav
bi'liːv	'aidə,laiz	pə'zes
'riə,laiz	ri'viə*	oun
ə'priːʃi,eit	'dout on	bi'loŋ
'noutis	'kʌvit	sjuːt
faind	wont	ri'zembļ
'gaðə*	wiʃ	'iːkwļ
'ʌndə'stand	di'zaiə*	kən'sist ov
miːn	lʌv	kən'tein
fiːl	praiz	di'zɜːv
ri'gaːd	'valju	ri'kwaiə*
pri'zjuːm	di'pend on	niːd
sə'pouz	pri'fɜː*	lak
i'madʒin	laik	
θiŋk	'fansi	*Involuntary*
foː'siː	mis	*Perception*
iks'pekt	keə*	siː
in'tend	maind	hiə*
houp	fə'giv	smel
trʌst	'apri'hend	teist
daut	ri'zent	fiːl
dis'trʌst	dis'laik	
ri'membə*	fiə*	*Incomplete*
'rekə'lekt	di'test	*Predication*
'rekəg,naiz	heit	biː
ri'koːl	louð	siːm
fə'get	'eksi,kreit	ə'piə*
di'təːmin	ə'bomi,neit	miːn
'difə*	əb'hoː*	'signi,fai
ri'fjuːz		'matə*

Apart from verbs of incomplete predication, these verbs express mental or emotional states, involuntary sensory perception and possession or some other relationships.

It would appear that the reason why these verbs did not develop tenses in the aspect of activity—which is a comparatively modern phenomenon in English—is that there was no need to distinguish between a lasting and an ephemeral manifestation of the state. There is, however, a contemporary tendency, attributable to a desire to make conversation more vivid, to use the aspect of activity in a good many of the verbs that specify mental or emotional states. Further, the same aspect is used with some of the verbs when they refer to deliberate actions instead of involuntary ones.

Certain verbs that specify a state or posture of their subject are generally used to indicate the existence of the state, and not its adoption or completion. Such verbs are therefore most frequently found in the aspect of activity (which, it should be remembered, includes a state of non-activity). Verbs of this kind are:

stand	sit	lai	niːl	liːn
haŋ	skwot	krautʃ	stuːp	riˈklain

In the succeeding paragraphs the uses of each tense are listed, and, as the passive voice tenses are used in similar circumstances to those of the active voice, examples are given covering both voices. The three groups of modals referred to in a number of these paragraphs are described in §§173–4.

211 Aspect of accomplishment. In general, the tenses of this aspect are used when the speaker wishes to draw attention to the fact, either of the performance or non-performance of an action, or of the existence or non-existence of a state or condition. The emphasis is on the result of the action rather than the process, or on the existence of the state rather than on its beginning or end. In the direct present tense, however, the principal suggestion is that the action is habitual, or at least frequently repeated, and that the state is of long duration and not merely temporary.

The other direct tenses emphasize the completion of an action and not the process or activity involved in doing it. If a time is mentioned, it is for the purpose of stating that the action took

place at that moment or was completed by then ; if a period is
named it indicates that the action lasted for that length of time.

The perfect tenses indicate the completion of an action at or
before a time either mentioned or understood, or alternatively its
duration for a specified period.

For the treatment of verbs expressing physical, mental or
emotional states see §210.

2I2 **Present direct of accomplishment.** Tenses A1 and P1.
Functions :

a. To make statements that are known to have lasting validity.
ði 'ɜːθ riˈvolvz on its ˈaksis in 'twentiˈfoːr ˌauəz.
'woːtə ˈboilz ət ə 'hʌndrid diˈgriːz ˌsentigreid.
'woːtər iz kənˈvəːtid intu ˌais ət 'ziərou diˈgriːz ˌsentigreid.
'peipər iz ˈmeid əv ˈragz oː ˈwud ˌpʌlp.

b. To indicate that an action is either habitual or repeated, and
not merely temporary. Adverbs of frequency or repetition are
therefore often associated with it.

hi 'kʌmz on ˌfraidiz.   ai 'gou ðeər ˈevri ˌdei.
d ju 'driŋk ˈkofi ?   dəz i 'evə ˈsmouk ?
ʃi 'dʌznt ˌsliːp wel.   hi 'dʌznt ˈofn̩ ˌluːz ˌmʌni.
'dʌznt i ˈspiːk ˈiŋgliʃ ?   'dount ju ˈrait ˈregjuləli ?
təˈmaːtuz 'aːnt ˈoːlwiz ˌiːtn̩ ˌroː.
'iznt ˈðis ˈmedsin 'juːʒuəli ˈteikən wið ˈwoːtə ?

c. To refer to the future in subordinate clauses of time, duration
or condition.

ai l 'siː ju wen ai 'kʌm ˈbak 'nekst ˌjiə.
ju məst 'luk fər it til ju ˈfaind it.
'miːt mi təˈmoru ənˌles ju ˌhiə tə ðə ˌkontrəri.
it məs bi 'lukt foː til it s ˌfaund.
ju l bi ˈnoutifaid if ju ə ˌnot ˌniːdid.

d. When it is used with the verbs listed in §210 this tense may
refer to present activity or to a temporary state.

ai 'duː ˈlaik joː 'njuː ˇhat !
dəz it 'matər if ai 'liːv ˈðis wʌn ˈaut ?
'ðis ˈhat 'dʌzn̩ biˈloŋ tə ˇmiː.
'ðount ju ˈrekəgnaiz ðis ˈpiktʃə ?

ʃi z 'laikt fə hə ˙tʃaːmiŋ ˏmanəz.
'aːnt ðei riˈgaːdid əz ʹdeindʒərəs ?

e. To refer to the future in principal clauses when one is speaking of a programme or other arrangement already decided upon.

wi 'staːt on auə ˙trip 'nekst ˏmʌndi.
də ðei əʹraiv təˈmoru oː ðə 'dei ˏaːftə ?
hi 'dʌzn̩t riˈtəːn til ðə 'wiːk aːftə ˏnekst.
'dount ai ˙get eni ʹdiskaunt on ðis ˙pəːtʃis ?

f. In the following cases tenses A1 and P1 are used without any implication of an habitual action. They are used in preference to A7 and P7, which would suggest that the action is going on at the moment of speaking, and are really substituted for A4 and P4, which are the tenses that would really fit the situation.

hi 'telz mi ju ə ˈteikiŋ ə ʹholidi ˌnekst ˏmʌnθ.
ai m inʹfoːmd ðət ðə ˙miːtiŋ wil bi ˙held 'nekst ˏsatədi.

213 Past direct of accomplishment. Tenses A2 and P2. Functions :

a. To indicate that an action was performed or a state existed at a time or during a period in the past which, if not already manifest or implicit, must be indicated by means of an adverbial of past time. Tenses A4 and P4 are used if no precise time or period is involved.

hi 'keim ˙in ə 'moument əˏgou.
did ju inʹvait ðəm tə ðə ʹpaːti ? (When you saw them)
ai 'didn̩t ʹstei ˌmoː ðən ə ˌminit. (When I was there)
'didn̩t ʃi ˙teik hə ʹmedsin laːst ˙nait ?
'ðis ˙letə wəz ˙ritn̩ 'θriː ʹdeiz əˏgou.
ðə 'kontrakt wəz ˙saind 'laːst ˏwiːk.

b. To refer to a hypothetical present or future action in the following cases :

(1) in a conditional clause dependent on a main clause containing a modal of Group 2.

ju 'mait ˙siː ðəm if ju 'went təˇmoru.
'wudn̩t ju ʹhelp mi, 'iːvn̩ if ai ʹaːskt ju ?
wi 'ʃudn̩t ˙get ðeər in ʹtaim ənˌles wi ˌstaːtid ˏˇəːliə.
'kudn̩t wi ˙staːt ət ʹsiks if wi wə ʹkoːld ˙əːli ?
ʃi d 'kʌm ət ʹwʌns if ˌounli ʃi wər ˏaːskt.

(2) in clauses subordinated to a present or modal main clause by the conjunctions əz if or əz dou.

hi I 'triːt mi əz ˙ðou i 'didn̩t ˈnou mi.

ai 'fiːl əz if ai ˙had ə 'bad ˏkould ˌkʌmiŋ ˌon.

(3) in clauses dependent on one of the expressions ai wiʃ, ai d raːðə*, it s taim, and the imperative of sə'pouz.

ai 'wiʃ ai had ˙taim tə 'tel ju oːl əˏbaut it.

ai d 'raːðə ju ˙keim ˙bak təᵛmoru.

it s 'taim wi ˙went ˈhoum.

sə'pouz i ˙didn̩t ˙wont tə ˏsiː əs !

214 Modal direct of accomplishment. Tenses A3 and P3. Functions:

a. With modals of Groups 1 and 3, to indicate an action or state in the present or future, often with adverbials of present or future time respectively.

ai I 'miːt ju ət ˙wʌn əˈklok, əz ai ʃl bi ˈfriː ˏðen.

'mei wi ˙kʌm ˈin, oː 'mʌst wi ˙kʌm ˙bak ðis 'aːftəˏnuːn?

ai 'niːdn̩t ˙duː it ət ᵛwʌns, bət ai 'oːt tə ˙duː it təᵛmoru.

'kaːnt ju ˙stei eni ˈloŋgə? ai ˈdeənt ˏstei hiər əˏloun.

wi 'mei bi di˙leid bai ðə ˈsnou.

'kaːnt ðə ˙ruːm bi 'kliːnd on ˈwenzdi?

b. With modals of Groups 2 and 3, to report speeches (such as those shown in examples *a* above) containing modals of Groups 1 or 3.

hi 'sed i d ˙miːt mi ət 'wʌn əˈklok.

ðei 'aːskt if ðei mait ˙kʌm ˏin.

hi ˏsed i 'niːdn̩t ˙duː it ət ᵛwʌns.

ʃi 'aːskt if ai ˙kudn̩t ˏstei, əz ʃi 'deənt ˙stei ðeər əˏloun.

ai ˈtould ju wi ˏmait bi diˏleid bai ðə ˏsnou.

hi 'aːskt if ðə ˙ruːm 'kudn̩t bi ˙kliːnd on ˈwenzdi.

c. With modals of Group 2 only.

(1) to indicate a hypothetical action or state in the present or future, often with adverbials of present or future time respectively, and connected with a conditional clause in a past tense.

ai d 'gou wið ju ˈnau if ai wə ˏfriː.

kəd ju 'gou ðeə ˙nekst ˈwiːk if ðə ˙weðə wə ˙fain?

ʃi 'mait not ˇlaik it if wi ˌleft wiðaut ˌseiiŋ gudˌbai.
'wudn̩t i ˙get ə ˙letə tə'moru if ju ˙rout it ət ˙wʌns?
ai 'ʃudn̩t bi ˙siːn ˇtoːkiŋ tu im if ˌai wə ˌjuː.
ðə 'wəːk kəd bi ˙finiʃt bai ˇfraidi if ju ˌstʌk at it.

(2) to express inclination or disinclination for a hypothetical situation in the present or future. Often followed by an infinitive phrase.

ai ʃəd ˇlʌv tə ˌsiː ðəm əˌgein.
joː 'brʌðə ˙mait pri'fəːr ə 'holidi in ˇjuərəp.
ju 'kudn̩t disˇlaik ˌðis ˌbuk.
ai 'ʃudn̩t ˙keə tə ˇtrai it.
hi 'wudn̩t ˙laik tə bi in ˇjoː ˌʃuːz.
ai ʃəd ˇheit tə ˌhav tə ˌduː ðat əˌˌgein.
ai ʃəd ˇlouð ˌhaviŋ tə ˌliv əˌloun.
'wudn̩t ju bi di'laitid tə ˙siː ðəm ə˙gein?

215 Present perfect of accomplishment. Tenses A4 and P4. Functions:

a. To indicate that an action was, or was not, performed (and, since it is a tense of accomplishment, completed) at some unspecified time in the past. While adverbials of duration can be used with these tenses, adverbials of past time cannot.

ai v oːl'redi ˇritn̩ ðə ˌletə.
həv ju 'aːskt fə pə'miʃn̩ tə ˙liːv?
ðei 'havn̩t ˙spoukən tə mi fə ˇwiːks.
'haznt i ˙teikən ðə 'wʌnz i ˈwontid?
ʃi z bin i'lektid ə ˙membər əv ˌpaːləmənt.
həv ðei bin in'strʌktid ˙not tə ˈkʌm ðis ˙wiːk?

b. To indicate that a state or condition that still exists began at a certain time in the past, or has lasted for a certain period up to the moment of speaking. This tense is used mostly with verbs expressing a condition; with verbs expressing an activity tense A10 is usually more suitable.

wi v 'noun ˙ðat ˌfamili fə 'fiftiːn ˌjiəz.
'hau ˙loŋ əv ju ˙had ðis ˌkaː?
ju 'havn̩t bin ˙hiər əz ˙loŋ əz ˇai hav.

'haznt ʃi ˇgroun ə ˌlot ˌleitli !
ai v bin 'kept in ˇbed ˌoːl ˌðis ˌwiːk.
ðə pə'teituz ˌhavnt bin ˌpiːld jet.

216 Past perfect of accomplishment. Tenses A5 and P5.
Functions :

a. To indicate that an action was, or was not, completed by
a moment or period denoted by an adverbial of past time.

ai d oːl'redi ˇritn ðə ˌletə wen ju ˌkeim.
həd ðei ə'raivd bai ðə ˙taim ju ˙got ðeə?
ʃi 'hadnt di˙saidid tə ˇkʌm til ai ˌspouk tə hə.
'hadnt ju ˙menʃnd it tu im bi'foə?
ðə 'faiər əd bin ˙put ˙aut bi'foː wi ˇgot ðeə.
'hadnt ðə ˙haus bin 'sould bi'foː ju ˇsoː it?

b. To suggest a hypothetical action or state in the past, in the
following cases.

(1) in a conditional clause dependent on a main clause that
contains a modal perfect tense formed with a modal of Group 2.

ju d əv 'got ðə ˙letə tə'dei if i d ˌpoustid it ˌəːliə.
'kud ju əv ˇgon if ðei d in˙vaitid ju?
ai 'ʃudnt əv ˇdʌn it if ai ˌhadnt bin ˌaŋgri.
'maitnt i əv ˇsteid if ʃi ˙hadnt ə'fendid im?
ai kəd əv ə'voidid ði ˌaksidnt if ˌounli ai d bin ˌwoːnd.
it 'wudnt əv bin ˇsould if it ˌhadnt bin ˌtestid.

(2) in clauses subordinated to a main clause by the conjunctions
əz if or əz ðou.

hi 'lukt əz if i d in˙tendid tə ˇspiːk tu əs.
it 'iznt əz ðou ju d bin ˇhaːmd in eni ˌwei.

(3) in clauses dependent on one of the expressions ai wiʃ,
ai d raːðə*, it s taim, and the imperative of sə'pouz.

ai 'wiʃ ai d ˙dʌn it bi'foː ju ˇkeim.
ai d 'raːðə ju d ˙tould mi ˇəːliə.
it s 'kwait ˙taim ðei d 'finiʃt ˙pleiiŋ ə'baut.
sə'pouz ju ˙hadnt ˙faund ðəm ət ˌhoum !

217 Modal perfect of accomplishment. Tenses A6 and P6. Functions:

a. With modals of Groups 1 and 3, to indicate that an action or state will be complete at the moment of speaking or at some time in the future, often denoted by adverbials of present or future time.

ai 'mei əv ˙ritn̩ mai ˙letəz bi'foː ju get ˎbak.
'ʃal wi əv 'finiʃt ðə ˙geim bai ˊsʌpətaim?
ðei ˎkaːnt əv ə˛raivd oːlˇredi!
'wount ju əv ˙had ən 'aːnsə tə ðə ˙letə bai ˊmʌndi?
joː 'teligram 'mʌst əv bin diˎlivəd bai ˏnau.
'evriθiŋ | əv bin ˎiːtn̩ bai ðə ˏtaim wi ˏget ðeə.

b. With modals of Groups 2 and 3, to report speeches (such as those shown in examples *a* above) containing modals of Groups 1 or 3.

hi ˏsed i 'mait əv ˙ritn̩ ðə ˙letəz bi'foː wi got ˎbak.
ai 'aːskt if wi ʃəd əv 'finiʃt ðə ˙geim bai ˎsʌpətaim.
hi iks˛kleimd ðət ðei ˎkudn̩t əv ə˛raivd bai ˇðen.
wi 'aːskt if ʃi ˙wudn̩t əv ˙had ən ˙aːnsə bai ˏmʌndi.
hi 'tould mi mai ˙teligram 'mʌst əv bin diˎlivəd bai ˏðen.
hi wəz ə'freid ˙evriθiŋ ud əv bin ˎiːtn̩ bai ðə ˏtaim wi ˏgot ðeə.

c. With modals of Group 2 only.

(1) to indicate a hypothetical action or state that would be complete at some time in the past or present, often denoted by an adverbial of past or present time or connected with a conditional clause in a past or past perfect tense.

ai kəd əv 'daːnst ˙oːl ˏnait wið ˏjuː.
'wud ju əv ˊgest it if ai ˙hadn̩t ˙tould ju?
hi 'mait not əv ˎkʌm if i d ˏnoun hau ˎfaːr it ˏwoz.
'ʃudn̩t ju əv ˙got hiər ˊəːliə ðən ˙ðis?
'ðis ˙letə 'ʃud əv bin ˙sent ˙of ˎjestədi.
'kudn̩t it əv bin ˙sent bai ˊeəmeil?

(2) to express inclination or disinclination for a hypothetical situation in the past, with the suggestion that fulfilment was impossible, sometimes because something else was done. The object of the verb is often an infinitive phrase or gerund.

ai ʃəd əv ˈlʌvd tə ˌsiː ðəm əˌgein.
joː ˈbrʌðə ˈmait əv priˈfəːd ə ˈholidi in ˈjuərəp.
wi ˈʃudṇt əv disˈlaikt ə ˈwiːk ət ðə ˈsiːˈsaid.
ju ˈmait not əv ˈkeəd tə ˈtrai it.
hi ˈwudṇt əv ˈlaikt tə bi in ˈjoː ˌʃuːz.
ai ʃəd əv ˈheitid tə ˌhav tə ˌduː ðat əˌgein.
ai ʃəd əv ˈlouðd ˌhaviŋ tə ˌliv əˌloun.
ˈwudṇt ju əv diˈtestid ˈhaviŋ tə ˈrʌn ə ˈhaus?

218 Aspect of activity. The tenses of this aspect are used when the speaker wishes to concentrate his hearer's attention on a certain actvity—or lack of activity—of the subject of the verb rather than on the accomplishment of any particular action.

Used with an adverbial of time, they indicate that the activity was in progress at that time, without any indication of its duration, the only implication being that it began before, and might finish after, the time or period mentioned.

Used with an adverbial of duration they concentrate attention on the existence of the activity during the period mentioned, and make no suggestion that anything was finished or accomplished.

Used without an adverbial they merely indicate the existence of the activity, without any indication of time or duration.

The present direct of activity (tenses A7 and P7) indicates that an activity is going on at the moment of speaking and is not necessarily an habitual activity, or in speaking of a state, that it is temporary and not permanent.

219 Present direct of activity. Tenses A7 and P7. Functions:

a. To indicate that the subject is—or is not—engaged in a certain activity at the moment of speaking or during a limited period before and after; it carries no suggestion as to when the activity started or as to how long it will go on, but the latter point may be conveyed by using an adverbial of present time.

ai m ˈraitiŋ ˈletəz ət ðə ˌmoumənt.
ə ju ˈweitiŋ fər ˈenibodi?
joː ˈbrʌðər ˈizṇt ˈspiːkiŋ tə mi ˌðiːz deiz.
ˈaːnt ðei ˈteikiŋ ˈiŋgliʃ lesṇz ˈðis ˈjiə?
hi z ˈbiːiŋ ˈtoːt bai ə ˈnjuː ˌmeθəd.
ˈletəz ˈaːnt biːiŋ diˈlivəd ˈregjuləli ˌnauədeiz.

b. With an adverbial of future time, to indicate that an activity will—or will not—take place at some time in the future.

wi ə 'liːviŋ fə ˋspein ˌnekst ˌmʌnθ.
iz i 'teikiŋ ðə ˙famili tə ðə ˊθiətə təˋmoru?
ʃi 'izn̩t ˋraitiŋ tə ðəm til ˌnekst ˌwiːk.
'aːnt ju ˙getiŋ ə 'njuː ˊkaː ˙suːn?
auə 'kaː z ˙biːiŋ riˋpeəd ˌnekst ˌwiːk.
ðə 'gudz ˙aːnt biːiŋ ˙sould til ˋtjuːzdi.

c. Tenses A7 and P7 of the verb **tə gou**, when followed by the infinitive of another verb, form a future tense which, when the subject is inanimate, makes (or asks for) a confident prediction.

it s 'gouiŋ tə ˋrein in ə ˌminit.
iz it 'gouiŋ tə bi ˊfain təˋdei?
it 'izn̩t ˙gouiŋ tə bi ˋiːzi tə ˌduː ˌðat.
'izn̩t ˙ðat ˙waiə gouiŋ tə ˊbreik ʌndə ˙ðat ˙strein?
ðə 'haus iz ˙gouiŋ tə bi ˋflʌdid if it ˌreinz mʌtʃ ˌmoə.
'ðouz ˙tuː ˙lamps 'aːnt gouiŋ tə ˙giv əs iˋnʌf ˋlait.

With animate subjects this construction expresses intention.

ai m 'gouiŋ tə ˋpʌniʃ ju if ju biˌheiv sou ˌbadli.
ə ju 'gouiŋ tə ˙stʌdi ˊiŋgliʃ ðis ˙jiə?
ðei 'aːnt ˙gouiŋ tə ˙send əs eni moː ˌmʌni.
'izn̩t ʃi ˙gouiŋ tə 'staːt ˙kliːniŋ ðə ˊhaus jet?
ju ə 'gouiŋ tə bi ˙givn̩ ðə 'fəːst ˌpraiz.
'aːnt ðei ˙gouiŋ tə bi əˋlaud ˊin?

In order to avoid repetition (with **gou**) or a clash of meaning (with **kʌm**) an elliptical construction, which, though formally a simple A7, is semantically still a future expressing intention, is used with these two verbs.

ai m 'gouiŋ tə ˋlʌndən ˌnekst ˌwiːk.
hi 'izn̩t ˙kʌmiŋ ˙bak til ˋwenzdi.

But the full construction may be used when it is desired to emphasize the idea of intention.

ai m ˋgouiŋ tə ˌgou tə ˌlʌndən ˌnekst ˌwiːk.
ʃi izn̩t ˋgouiŋ tə ˌkʌm ənd ˌsiː əs.

The following are some examples of contemporary speech showing how this tense is used with some of the verbs listed in §210.

hi z ri'gaːdiŋ ˙ðis əz auə 'fəːst misˌteik.
ə ju ri'membəriŋ tə ˙rait tə joː 'peərn̩ts ˙regjuləli?
wi ə 'wiʃiŋ wi 'hadn̩t ˙teikən sou 'meni ˑrisks.
ai m fə'giviŋ ju ⌄ðis taim, bət ai 'ʃaːnt ə⌄gein.
'oːl ðə ˙famili ə ˑlʌviŋ it ˌhiər ət ðə ˌsiːˌsaid.
'ðis ˙holidi z 'sjuːtiŋ mi ˙veri ˌwel.

220   Past direct of activity.   Tenses A8 and P8.   Functions:

a. To indicate that the subject was—or was not—engaged in
a certain activity at a moment or during a period in the past which,
if not already manifest, must be implicit, or else denoted by an
adverbial or clause of past time.   Tense A10 is used if no precise
time or period is to be understood.

hi wəz 'wotʃiŋ ˑteliˌviʒn̩ ˌoːl ˌjestədi ˌiːvniŋ.
'woz it ˊreiniŋ ðis ˙moːniŋ wen ju ˙went ˙aut?
ðei 'wəːnt ˙weəriŋ ˙hats wen ˑwiː ˌsoː ðəm.
'wəːnt ju ˙steiiŋ wið ə ˊfrend əv ˙main ˙laːst ˙wiːk?
ʃi 'woznt biːiŋ ˙helpt wið əː ˙houmwəːk wail ˑai wəz ˌðeə.
ðei wə biːiŋ 'entəˑteind bai joː ˑmʌðər ə ˌlitl̩ ˌwail əˌgou.

b. With an appropriate adverbial, to indicate that an intention,
such as those shown in §219, examples *b*, was not carried out; in
this case the finite often takes a stress, which may be a kinetic one.

wi wə 'liːviŋ fə ˑspein ˌnekst ˌmʌnθ.   (but now we aren't)
wəz i 'teikiŋ ðə ˙famili tə ðə ˊθiətə təˑmoru?
hi 'woznt ˙raitiŋ tə ðəm til 'nekst ˌwiːk.   (but now he will)
'wəːnt ju ˙getiŋ ə 'njuː ˊkaː ˙suːn?
hi ˑwoz biːiŋ ˌtoːt tə 'draiv ə ˑkaː.   (but gave it up)
ðə 'gudz ˑwəːnt biːiŋ ˌsould til ˑtjuːzdi.

c. To refer to a hypothetical present or future activity in the
following cases.

(1) in a conditional clause dependent on a main clause con-
taining a modal of Group 2.

ju 'mait ˑhav tə ˌspiːk ˌiŋgliʃ if ju wə ˌtravliŋ əˌloun.
kəd ju 'juːz ˙ðat ˙wəːd if ju wə 'spiːkiŋ ˊfoːml̩ ˙iŋgliʃ?
ai 'ʃudn̩t gou ˙aut if it wə ⌄reiniŋ.
'wudn̩t ðei bi ˙draiviŋ ˊfaːstər if ðei wə biːiŋ ˙folud?

(2) in clauses subordinated to a present or modal main clause by the conjunctions əz if or əz ðou.

> it 'luks əz if ðei wə 'katʃiŋ ˋʌp wið əs.
> ai 'fiːl əz ðou ai wə ˙biːiŋ iksˋperimentid wið.

(3) in clauses dependent on a main clause containing wiʃ, wəd ˋraːðə*, it s taim, or the imperative of səˋpouz.

> 'dount ju ˙wiʃ ju wə 'baːskiŋ in ðə ˊsʌn ˙nau?
> 'wudn̩t ju ˙raːðə ðei wə 'kʌmiŋ təˊmoru?
> 'izn̩t it ˙taim wi wə 'getiŋ ˙redi tə ˊgou?
> səˊpouz ðei wə ˙briŋiŋ səm ˋvizitəz ˌwið ðəm!

Note that wəː* is used with all persons in many subordinate clauses.

221 Modal direct of activity. Tense A9. Functions:

a. With modals of Groups 1 and 3.

(1) to indicate that the subject will—or will not—be engaged in a present or future activity, a suitable adverbial being often used. When ʃal or wil are the modals used, this tense is the nearest approach to a "neutral" future, as it has the effect of stripping these finites of their modal meaning, eliminating their suggestion of willingness or obligation respectively. In concurrence with this, the finite ʃal is generally used with the first person singular and plural, even in cases where wil would be used in tense A3.

> wi 'oːt tə bi ˋstaːtiŋ; ðei l bi ˋweitiŋ fər əs oːlˌredi.
> kən 'juː bi ˙leiiŋ ðə ˊteibl̩; 'ai ʃl̩ bi ˙kukiŋ ðə ˋmiːl.
> ju 'niːdn̩t bi ˙getiŋ θiŋz ᵛredi, əz ðei 'wount bi ˋkʌmiŋ.
> ai 'mʌsn̩t bi ˙staːtiŋ əˋnʌðə ˌgeim, əz wi ʃl̩ bi ˋliːviŋ ˌsuːn.

(2) to indicate that the subject will—or will not—be engaged in a certain activity at a time or during a period in the future usually indicated by an adverbial or adverbial clause.

> ai ʃl̩ bi 'seiliŋ in ˋskotlənd ˌoːl ˌnekst ˌwiːk.
> 'hau ˙loŋ l̩ ju bi 'steiiŋ wið joː ˋbrʌðə?
> ðei 'wount bi ˙draiviŋ ðə ˙kaː wail ˙ðis ˋrein ˌlaːsts.
> 'oːtn̩t ju tə bi ˊwəːkiŋ ˙oːl ˙dei təˊmoru?

b. With modals of Groups 2 and 3, to report speeches (such as those shown in examples *a* (1) and *a* (2) above) containing modals of Groups 1 or 3.

ðei ˌsed ðei 'oːt tə bi ˌstaːtiŋ, əz ðeə 'frendz ud bi ˌweitiŋ fə ðəm.
ʃi 'aːskt if ˈai kəd bi 'leiiŋ ðə ˌteibḷ, əz 'ʃiː d bi ˈkukiŋ ðə ˌmiːl.
ai 'tould ðəm ai ʃəd bi ˈseiliŋ in ˎskotlənd ˌoːl ˌnekst ˌwiːk.
hi 'aːskt mi ˈhau ˈloŋ ai ʃəd bi 'steiiŋ wið mai ˌbrʌðə.

c. With modals of Group 2 only, to suggest a hypothetical activity in the present or future, connected with a conditional clause which is usually in one of the tenses of set *b* (§173).

wi ʃəd bi in'dʒɔiiŋ auəselvz ət ðə ˎpaːti ˌnau, if ju ˌhadṇt ˌmeid əs ˌmis ðə ˌtrein.
ju 'mait not bi ˈhaviŋ sʌtʃ ən 'iːzi ˎtaim if ˌjoː 'faːðə ˈhadṇt ˎwəːkt ˌhaːd ˌoːl iz ˌlaif.
'wudṇt ðei bi ˈliviŋ in ðə 'sauθ əv ˊjuərəp if ðei kəd əˈfoːd it ?

222 Present perfect of activity. Tense A10. Functions:

a. With an adverbial of present time, to indicate that the subject has—or has not—been engaged in a certain activity during the elapsed portion of a period that includes the moment of speaking. Typical adverbials used in this context are tədei, ðis moːniŋ, ðis aːftənuːn, ðis iːvniŋ.

ʃi z bin ˎkofiŋ ə ˌlot təˌdei.
həv ju bin 'raitiŋ ˊletəz ðis ˈmoːniŋ ?
wi 'havṇt bin ˈpleiiŋ ˎgolf ðis ˌaːftəˌnuːn.
'havṇt ju bin ˈwotʃin ˊteliˈviʒṇ ðis ˈiːvniŋ ?

b. With the preposition (or conjunction) sins introducing an adverbial (or adverbial clause) of past time, to indicate that the subject has—or has not—been engaged in a certain activity in the interval between the time named and the moment of speaking. Typical adverbials used in this context are sins ðen, sins əːli jestədi, sins laːst wiːk, and typical clauses sins ai soː ju laːst, sins ðei keim.

ai v bin 'raitiŋ ˈletəz sins 'əːli ðis ˌmoːniŋ.
həv ju bin 'pleiiŋ ˈmʌtʃ ˊgolf sins ai ˈsoː ju ˈlaːst ?
hi 'haznt bin ˎspiːkiŋ tu əs sins wi ˌkworḷd.
'haznt ðə ˈbeikə bin ˊkoːliŋ sins ˈlaːst ˈwiːk ?

c. With the preposition **fɔː*** introducing a phrase expressing duration, to indicate that the subject has—or has not—been engaged in a certain activity during a period lasting until the moment of speaking. Typical phrases are: **fə ðə laːst tuː minits, fər ən auə***, **fə sevrḷ wiːks paːst.**

ai v bin 'raitiŋ ˙letəz fə 'tuː ˌauəz.
'wot əv ju bin ˋduːiŋ fə ðə ˌlaːst ˌauər oː sou?
ʃi 'haznt bin ˙teikiŋ hə ˙medsin fə 'sʌm ˋdeiz ˌnau.
'havṇt ðei bin ˙liviŋ in ˙spein fə ðə 'laːst ˙tuː ˊjiəz?

d. With an adverbial such as **leitli, dʒʌst, sou faː, ʌp tə nau,** to refer to an activity of unspecified duration lasting up to the moment of speaking.

ai v 'dʒʌst bin ˋspiːkiŋ tu im.
həv ju bin ˊwiniŋ ʌp tə ðə ˙prezṇt?
ðə 'paips 'havṇt bin ˙liːkiŋ ˋsou ˌfaː.
'havṇt ðei bin ˙kʌmiŋ tə ðə ˊklaːs ˙riːsṇtli?

e. Without an adverbial, to refer to a recent activity of un-specified, but often implicit, duration.

ai v bin 'wəːkiŋ ˙veri ˌhaːd.   (lately)
'wot əv ju bin ˌduːiŋ?   (just now *or* since I saw you last)

223   Past perfect of activity.   Tense A11.   Functions:

a. To indicate that the subject had—or had not—been engaged in a certain activity at a time in the past which, if not implicit, is denoted by an adverbial of past time. There is no implication as to whether the activity ceased at the time mentioned, or whether it continued.

ai d bin 'raitiŋ ˋletəz wen ju ˌkeim.
'had ðei bin ˊswimiŋ wen ju ˙met ðəm?
ai 'hadṇt bin ˙fiːliŋ ˋwel bifoːr ai ˌtuk ðat ˌmedsin.
'hadṇt ju bin iks˙pektiŋ ə ˙vizit frəm ðəm biˊfoə?

b. To suggest a hypothetical activity in the past, in the following cases.

(1) in a conditional clause dependent on a main clause containing a modal perfect tense formed with a modal of Group 2.

ʃi d əv ˇfiniʃt bai ˌnau if ʃi d bin ˈwəːkiŋ ˌhaːdə.

ju ˈmait əv ˙had ən ˈaksidn̩t if ˈai ˙hadn̩t bin ˇwotʃiŋ ju.

ju ˈwudn̩t əv ˙meid sʌtʃ ə ˈsili misˈteik if ju d bin ˌθiŋkiŋ əv ˌwot ju wə ˌˬduːiŋ.

(2) in clauses subordinated to a main clause by the conjunctions əz if, əz ðou.

it ˈizn̩t əz if i d bin ˈgiviŋ əs eni ˬtrʌbl̩.

hi ˈluks əz ðou hi d bin ˈfaitiŋ.

(3) in clauses dependent on a main clause using wiʃ, wəd raːðə*, or the imperative of səpouz.

ai ˈwiʃ ai d bin ˇwəːkiŋ insted əv ˈweistiŋ ˬtaim.

ai d ˈraːðə ju d bin ˈswimiŋ ðən ˌpleiiŋ ˇfutboːl.

sə'pouz i d bin ˙traiiŋ tə ˈfoun əs ˌoːl ðis ˌtaim.

224 Modal perfect of activity. Tense A12. Functions:

a. With modals of Groups 1 and 3, to indicate that the subject will—or will not—be engaged in an activity before the moment of speaking or before some time in the future denoted by an adverbial.

bai ˈfaiv əˈklok ʃi l əv bin ˈpleiiŋ fər ən ˈauə.

ˈweə kən ðei əv bin ˌhaidiŋ ˌoːl ðis ˌtaim?

ju ˈkaːnt əv bin prəˈnaunsiŋ ðat ˈwəːd kəˈrektli.

ˈoːtn̩t ju tu əv bin ˙getiŋ ˙redi fə ðə ˊpaːti?

b. With modals of Groups 2 and 3, to report speeches (such as those shown in examples *a* above) containing modals of Group 1 or 3.

ai ˌsed ʃi d ˈsuːn əv bin ˙pleiiŋ fər ən ˌauə.

ʃi ˈwʌndəd ˙weə ðei kəd əv bin ˈhaidiŋ ˌoːl ðat ˌtaim.

hi ˌsed ai ˈmʌst əv bin prəˈnaunsiŋ it ˬroŋli.

ʃi ˈaːskt if ai ˈoːtn̩t tu əv bin ˙getiŋ ˙redi fə ðə ˬpaːti.

c. With modals of Group 2, to suggest a hypothetical activity that would be complete at the moment of speaking or at some time in the past denoted by an adverbial or connected with a conditional clause in a past or past perfect tense.

ai ˈmait əv bin ˙duːiŋ mai ˈhoumwəːk ˌoːl ðis ˌtaim.

ˈʃud wi əv bin əˈraiviŋ ˙nau, if ˈai ˙hadn̩t ˙noun ðə ˊwei?

ðei ˈkudn̩t əv bin iksˌpektiŋ əs in ˈðis ˌweðə.

ˈwudn̩t ˊjuː əv bin ˙fiːliŋ ˙taiəd, if ju d ˈwoːkt əz ˙faːr əz ˊai hav?

TAGS

225   The conjugating finites in tags.   The repetition of a specific verb that has just been used in a conversation is avoided in English by using what is often called a tag.   The essential elements of a tag are a subject (usually a pronoun) and a conjugating finite, in either its affirmative or negative form, as required.   The finite stands for the specific verb that has just been used, and any other essential part of the sentence, e.g., the object of a transitive verb.

Compared with the system of an invariable word or phrase used in many other languages, this system is rather more complicated for the learner, as it involves choosing the correct finite to agree with the tense and the subject, but it has the advantage of being unambiguous although the specific verb is not repeated.

Tags are used in a number of different ways, either by the speaker who used the specific verb or by another.   The form of the tag varies with its meaning.   Special notice should be taken of the intonation, which is important in conveying the correct meaning. All the conjugating finites are used in tags, but juːst is very frequently replaced by did.

226   Tag questions.   There are five main classes of these. Examples of each class are given below.

Tag General Questions.

These are questions added to a statement by the same speaker. They are said with Tune I if the speaker is not sure of his statement, and with Tune II if he is sure of what he says.   In the latter case the question is really a request for the hearer to agree with him.

> ju kən 'plei ˇkrikit, ′kaːnt ju ?   *or*   ˎkaːnt ju ?
> hi z 'kʌmiŋ ˎwið əs, ′iznt i ?   *or*   ˎiznt i ?

Tag Questions Added to Imperatives.

With Tune I on the finite these soften the imperative.   With Tune II on a finite following an imperative bearing Tune III they urge the hearer to comply with the request.

> 'put ðə ˙buks on ðə ˌteibl̩, ′wil ju ?
> 'kʌm ˇəːli, ˎwount ju ?   'dount bi ˇleit, ˎwil ju?

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Tag Questions as Afterthoughts.

In these, the speaker, having made a statement, questions its
validity. The finite is always affirmative, and takes a Tune II.

wi `ʃaːnt bi ˌleit.  oː `ʃal wi?
ðei 'juːst tə ˙liv ˎhiə. oː `did ðei?

Tag Particular Questions.

These are questions in which the second speaker asks for the
identity of a subject referred to pronominally by the first speaker.

hi mei `gou.—`huː mei? it məst bi `mendid.—`wot ˌmʌst?

Tag Questions as Comments.

Here the second speaker indicates that he has heard a statement
by the first speaker, and receives it with varying degrees of interest
or credulity.

ai m `taiəd.—ˊaː ju?  *or* ou `aː ju? *or* `ou, ju `aːr, ˌaː ju?
ju ʃəd `weit.—ˊʃud wi?  *or* ou, `ʃud wi? *or* `ou, wi `ʃud, ˌʃud wi?

227 Tag statements. The seven main classes of these are shown
below, with examples.

Tag Answers to Questions.

These are short replies given by a speaker to either a general or
a particular question. The jes and nou always take kinetic tones.

did ju ˊriːd it?—`jes, ai `did. *or* `nou, ai `didn̩t.
'wount ðei ˊfit?—`jes, ðei `wil. *or* `nou, ðei `wount.
'huː ˙wonts ˎtiː?—`ai ˌduː. *or* `ai ˌdount.

Tag Conditional Answers to Questions.

Here the second speaker gives a conditional affirmative reply to
a question or a request by the first speaker.

'iz i ˙teikiŋ ðə ˊkaː?—if i ᵛmei.
'wil ju ˊhelp mi?—if ai ᵛkan. *or* if ai ᵛmʌst.

Tag Agreement.

Here the second speaker agrees with what the first speaker has said.

ai məst 'liːv ˎəːli.—`jes, ju ˌmʌst.
ai 'mʌsn̩t bi ˎˎleit.—`nou, ju `mʌsn̩t.
ʃi wəz `toːkiŋ ˌtuː ˌmʌtʃ.—`jes, ʃi ˎwoz, ˎwozn̩t ʃi?
ʃi 'didn̩t ˙spiːk veri ᵛlaud.—`nou, ʃi `didn̩t, `did ʃi?

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Tag Disagreement.

Here the second speaker disagrees with what the first speaker
has said. Tune II is too abrupt here, and Tune III is generally
used for politeness.

    it s 'tuː ˋəːli tə ˌstaːt.—ˋnou, it ˌizn̩t.
    wi 'niːdn̩t ˇhʌri.—'ou, ˙jes, wi ˇmʌst.

Tag Disagreement with an Assumption in a Question.

In these the second speaker protests that an assumption made
by the first speaker is incorrect. The original question nearly
always begins with **wai**.

    'wai did ju inˋsʌlt im?—bət ai ˋdidn̩t!
    'wai ˙wount ju ˋhelp ðəm?—bət ai ˋwil!

Tag Additions.

In these the second speaker adds a new subject to a verb used
by the first speaker, in order to express a parallel. The addition
to an affirmative statement is introduced by **sou**, and that to a
negative statement by **noː**,* while there is inversion of the new
subject and the finite.

    ˋai l ˌhelp im.—'sou wil ˌai. *or* 'sou wil ˌdʒon.
    ðei 'aːnt ˌredi.—'noːr əm ˌai. *or* 'noːr iz ˌdʒon.

Tag Contrary Additions.

In these a new subject is added to a specific verb already used,
but this time to point out an antithesis. These additions, which
may be made either by the original speaker or by another one,
begin with **bət**, and there is no inversion of the new subject and
the finite.

    ˋhiː wəz ˌredi.—bət 'ai ˌwozn̩t. *or* bət 'juː ˌwəːnt.
    'ðei ˙wəːnt ˋredi.—bət ˋwi ˌwəː. *or* bət ˋdʒon ˌwoz.

SPECIAL STRUCTURES

228 **wud raːðə***. A much-used idiom expressing preference
involves the use of **wud** followed by the adverb **raːðə*** and any
one of the six infinitives of a specific verb. To state a preference
for not doing something the affirmative finite is used before a
negative infinitive. The infinitives are not preceded by **tu**.

A 3   ju d 'raːðə ˴weit, ′wudn̩t ju?
A 3   ju d 'raːðə ˙not ˴weit, ′wud ju?
A 6   'witʃ ud ju ˴raːðə əv ˌsiːn?
A 6   hi d 'raːðər əv ˴weitid, ′wudn̩t i?
A 9   wi d 'raːðə bi ˙pleiiŋ ˌgolf.
A 9   'wudn̩t ðei ˙raːðə bi 'laiiŋ in ðə ′sʌn?
A12   ai d 'raːðər əv bin ˙toːkiŋ tə ˴juː.
A12   ai d 'raːðə ˴not əv bin ˌtravliŋ in ˴ðis ˌweðə.
P 3   'wudn̩t ðei ˙raːðə bi 'teikən tə ðə ˙siː′said?
P 3   ai d 'raːðə bi ˙kept in ˴ignərn̩s.
P 6   'wudn̩t ju ˙raːðər əv bin ′tould əbaut it?
P 6   ai d 'raːðə ˙not əv bin in˳volvd.

Negation can be incorporated in a question in two different ways, which convey different insinuations. Notice the difference between

wəd ju 'raːðə ′not ˙beið? = Would you prefer not to bathe?
'wudn̩t ju ˙raːðə ′beið? = You'd prefer to bathe, wouldn't you?

In a variant of this idiom the finite **wud** and the specific verb have different subjects. In this case the modal, while retaining its attributes as a conjugator (of inversion and combination with **not**), acts semantically as a specific finite and is not followed by an infinitive, while the specific verb is put into a subordinate clause without any conjunction. Notice the tense arrangement.

If the sentence refers to present or future time the specific verb is in the past tense:

ˇfraŋkli, ai d 'raːðə ˙sʌmwʌn went ˴wið ju.
wud ju 'raːðə ði ˙ʌðəz ˙didn̩t ˴dʒoin əs?
wi d 'raːðə ju ˙sed 'nʌθiŋ ə˳baut it.
'wudn̩t ju ˙raːðər ai 'geiv ðəm ə′wei?

If the sentence refers to past time the specific verb is in the past perfect tense:

ˇfraŋkli, ai d 'raːðə ˙sʌmwʌn ˴els əd ˌgon ˌwið ju.
wud ju 'raːðər ai d 'left ði ˙ʌðəz bi′haind?
wi d 'raːðər i ˙hadn̩t kən˴sʌltid əs in ˌðis ˌmatə.
'wudn̩t ju ˙raːðə wi d 'oːl ˙steid ət ′houm?

There is a variant of this idiom using the form **wud suːnə***, but most speakers seem to prefer **wud raːðə***.

229 həd betə*. This well-established idiom bears a certain structural resemblance to the foregoing. It consists of **had** followed by the adverb **betə***, and, like the modals, it is followed by an infinitive instead of the past participle, which is generally used after parts of the verb **tə hav**. It suggests that a certain course of action is (or is not) advisable, or in the best interests of the subject. To suggest the advisability of not doing something the affirmative finite is used before a negative infinitive, but the negative finite is used freely in questions. This construction occurs with all the six infinitives, though it is not very common in the perfect tenses. The infinitives are not preceded by **tu**.

A 3   ai d 'betə ˋtel im əbaut it, ˊhadn̩t ai?
A 3   ai d 'betə ˙not ˋtel im əbaut it, ˊhad ai?
A 6   ju d 'betər əv ˙finiʃt bai ðə ˙taim ai get ˇbak.
A 9   'hadn̩t wi ˙betə bi ˙getiŋ ˊredi?
A 9   ðei d 'betə bi ˋstɑːtiŋ ˌsuːn.
A12   ju d 'betər əv bin ˙wəːkiŋ ˋhɑːd wail ai m əˌwei.
P 3   ʃi d 'betə ˙not bi 'wɔːnd əbaut it biˇfoːhand.
P 3   'hadn̩t it ˙betə bi 'kukt ət ˊwʌns?
P 6   ðə 'wəːk əd ˙betər əv bin inˈspektid biˈfoːr ai əˋraiv.

Here again, negation can be incorporated in a question in two different ways, which convey different insinuations. Notice the difference in meaning of the two following questions:

> həd ai 'betə ˙not ˊgou? = Is it advisable for me not to go?
> 'hadn̩t ai ˙betə ˊgou? = It's advisable for me to go, isn't it?

230 Causative get and hav. This structure conveys the idea that the subject of either of these verbs will (in the active) induce somebody else to do something or (in the passive) cause something to be done. In the active voice an accusative and infinitive (§234) is used, while in the passive voice a past participle is used as a predicate of result after the object. The structural patterns are:

Active	*Passive*
ai l 'get ðəm tə ˙rait ə ˌletə.	ai l 'get ə ˌletə ˌritn̩.
ai l 'hav ðəm ˙rait ə ˌletə.	ai l 'hav ə ˌletə ˌritn̩.

The passive forms are more frequently used than the active ones. Notice that in the active voice **get** takes the infinitive with **tu**,

while hav takes the infinitive without tu. The use of hav in the active voice is more typical of American than of British English.

There is a subtle difference between the meanings of the two verbs in this context ; get suggests that there may be slight trouble or difficulty in arranging for the action to be performed, while hav treats the action as a matter of course. Examples:

Active :

hi 'gets iz ˈfaːðə tə 'help im wið iz ˋhoumwəːk.
ai v bin 'getiŋ mai ˈstjuːdn̩ts tə prəˋnauns ˏbetə.
ʃi 'mei ˈget əː ˈhʌzbənd tə 'bai ər ə ˈnjuː ˋkaː.
wi 'had ðə ˈboi ˈʃou əs ðə ˈwei tə joː ˋhaus.
ju məst 'hav ðəm ˈtiːtʃ ju 'hau tə ˋduː it.
'hav ðə ˈsekritri 'meik ə ˋkopi əv ˏðis ˏdokjumənt.

Passive :

ju 'riəli 'mʌs ˈget joː ˋheə ˏkʌt.
'kudn̩t ju ˈget ðis ˈvaːz ´mendid?
wi ʃl̩ bi 'getiŋ ðə ˈkaː riˈpeəd təˋmoru.
ðei v bin 'haviŋ ðeə ˋhaus ˏriːˏpeintid.
'dount ˈhav eni ˋtʃeindʒiz ˏmeid til 'ai riˇtəːn.
'ʃal ai ˈhav 'sentr̩l ´hiːtiŋ inˈstoːld?

231 Precursory ðeə*. This is a device for indicating that the logical subject, which will be either a noun or a pronominal determiner, will follow the verb (nearly always the verb tə biː acting as a verb of incomplete predication) instead of preceding it as it normally would in statements. This is done by introducing the word ðeə* (almost invariably in its weak form ðə*) in the position that would normally be occupied by the subject. When acting in this capacity it behaves as if it were a pronoun, changing places with the finite in order to form questions and taking either a singular or a plural finite according as the real subject, for which it is acting as precursor, is singular or plural.

A sentence like ðə z ə 'buk on ðə ˋteibl̩ clearly meant originally ə 'buk iz ˋðeə, on ðə ˋteibl̩, the word ðeə* being used as an adverb of place, but in the modern use it has obviously lost all its adverbial force. For instance, in a sentence like ðə 'kʌmz ə ˈmoumənt wen wʌn riˋbelz it would be absurd to classify ðeə* as an adverb of

place. Since words are now usually labelled to accord with the functions they are performing, it would seem logical, when ðeə* serves as a precursor of the real subject, to classify it as a determiner, with the label "pseudo-pronoun."

As shown in the following examples, ðeə* can be used with certain specific verbs, but is much more common with the verb tə biː. It occurs with all the conjugating finites except am and deə*.

> wəz ðər ə ˈbuk on ðə ˈteibl̩?—ˎjes, ðə wə ˋfaiv.
> ˈoːtn̩t ðə tə bi əˈnʌðə wʌn?—ðə ˇmait bi.
> ðə ˈmʌst əv bin ˙moː ðn̩ ˇðis!—ðə ˋkudn̩t əv bin.
> ˈwud ðə bi ə ˙tʃaːns əv ˈsiːiŋ ðəm?—ˎnou, ðə ˋwudn̩t.
> ˈhaz ðə bin ən ˈaksidn̩t? ðə ˈhadn̩t bin ˋtaim fə ˌtiː.
> ðə ʃl̩ bi ˈnou ˋaːgjuiŋ əbaut it. ðə ˈmei bi ˋtrʌbl̩.
> ðə ˌsiːmz ˈevri ˙riːzn̩ fə səsˋpektiŋ ju.
> dəz ðər əˈpiə tə bi ˙eni ekspləˈneiʃn̩ fər it?
> ðə riˌmeinz ˈnou ʌðə ˙koːs tə ˋteik.
> ðə z ˈnou ˙taim tə ˈfiniʃ it ˇnau.
> ðə ˈwozn̩t eni ˋruːm tə ˌsit ˌdaun.
> ˈwount ðə bi ə ˙lot əv ˈletəz tə bi ˙aːnsəd?
> ðər ə ˋʃuə tə bi ˌlaːdʒ ˇkraudz ðeə.
> ðə z ˈlaikli tə bi ˋtrʌbl̩ if ju ˌdount ˌstaːt ˌsuːn.
> ðə kən bi ˈnou ˙nouiŋ ˋhau meni misˌteiks wi ʃl̩ ˌfaind.

It will be found that by replacing the verb tə biː by the appropriate tense of igzist (for states) or əkəː* (for events) any of the above examples can be rearranged in the normal order, and ðeə* can be dispensed with.

The adverbs sʌmweə*, eniweə* and nouweə* are used after precursory ðeə*, and then function as pronominal determiners, as is clear from the fact that these compounds can be replaced by the determiner-noun combination sʌm ruːm, etc., and are in fact usually replaced in American English by the combinations sʌm pleis, etc.

> ðə ˈmʌs bi ˋsʌmweə fər əs tə ˌsit ˌdaun.
> iz ðər ˈeniweə fər əs tə ˙put auə ˈhats ən ˈkouts?
> ðə z ˈnouweə fər əs tə ˋhaid frəm ðəm.

Precursory ðeə* must not be confused with such a use as ˈðeə z ə ˋbuk, ˈon ðə ˋteibl̩, where ðeə* is fulfilling its normal function as an adverb of place and is therefore stressed.

232 Precursory it. This structure has a function similar to that described in §231, the difference being that while ðeə* does duty as precursor for nouns and determiners, precursory it serves in the same capacity for phrases and clauses, which, though the logical subjects of the verb, are considered grammatically as complements or adjuncts, the grammatical subject being the pronoun it. The phrases may be either infinitive or participial phrases and the clauses are noun clauses introduced either by the general conjunction ðat or by a conjunctive.

The finite used after precursory it is always singular and the verb is usually tə biː, though certain other verbs are used. Any modal except ʃal or deə* may be used in this structure. Examples:

Infinitive phrases.

    it wəz 'difik|t tə di˙said ˙wot tə ˅duː.
    it s 'iːzi tə ˅sei ˌðat, bət 'wil ðei bi˅liːv ju?
    it 'wudṇt ˙duː tə 'liːv ðə ˙doːr ʌn˅lokt.
    'didṇt it ˅əːk ju tə ˙hiə ðəm ˙toːk laik ˙ðat?

Participial phrases.

    it 'mʌs bi ˅boːriŋ ˌhaviŋ tə ˌwəːk in ə ˌpleis laik ˌðis.
    'wozṇt it di˅laitf| ˌlaiiŋ ˌðeər in ðə ˌsʌn?
    it 'kudṇt əv bin ˅plezṇt ˌhaviŋ tu əd‚mit ju wə ˌroŋ.
    it ˅haz bin ə ˌpleʒə ˌtoːkiŋ ˌouvər ˌould ˌtaimz.

Clauses introduced by ðat.

    it wəz 'foːtʃṇit fər ˙ʌs ðət i 'hadṇt ˅siːn əs.
    'izṇt it ə ˅ʃeim (ðət) ju ˌdidṇt ˌpaːs ði ig‚zam!

Clauses introduced by conjunctives.

    it s ʌn˅səːtṇ ˙weðə ðei l bi ˙eib| tə ˅kʌm.
    it wəz ə 'mistəri ˙weər i ˙got iz ˅mʌni.

This structure, with it acting as a precursor to the verb's real subject, which appears later in the sentence, must not be confused with the impersonal it which is the real (and grammatical) subject of the sentence, since it refers to something, generally the weather or the time, which it is not customary to name. Examples:

it wəz 'taim tə ˌliːv.	it 'izṇt ˙kould ˅nau.
it s 'tuː ˅əːli tə ˌstaːt.	it s ˌgouiŋ tə ˅rein.
it | 'suːn bi ˙nain ə‚klok.	ai 'θiŋk it | bi ˅fain tə‚dei.

There are also, of course, the cases in which something already mentioned or identified is referred to as it, as in the following sentences.

it wəz ə 'loŋ ˙taim ə‚gou.   it s 'raːðər ə ˙loŋ ‚wei.
it 'sez ˙hiə ðət i ˅did it.   it s ˅baund tə sək‚siːd.

Precursory it can be identified by applying the inversion test. If the pronoun can be dispensed with by rearranging the sentence, then it is precursory.   Compare the two sentences below:

    a. it s ə 'gud ˙θiŋ tə ‚nou ‚ðat.   b. it s ə 'gud ˙θiŋ tə ‚nou.

Inversion of a gives: tə 'nou ‚ðat iz ə 'gud ‚θiŋ, showing that the infinitive phrase tə nou ðat is the subject of the verb.   On the other hand, b does not make sense when inverted, showing that it is not precursory, but is the real subject, referring to something already in mind.

233   A subjunctive substitute.   The finite ʃud has an important function in subordinate clauses that in many other languages would be in the subjunctive mood.   When it is used in this way there is no suggestion of its modal meaning; it has a purely grammatical function as a substitute for the subjunctive, which has fallen out of use completely in spoken English with the one exception of the singular of the past tense of the verb tə biː, where woz is often replaced by wəː to indicate a hypothesis (§164).

In this structure ʃud is found in all the three persons and before all the six infinitives.   By means of suitable tense adjustments it may be made to refer to the past, present or future.   The clauses in which it occurs are introduced by the general conjunction ðət (expressed or understood) and are subordinated to various types of principal clause, among them:

1.   Precursory it followed by such nouns as

ə ˅wʌndə*   ə ˅piti   ə 'gud ˅θiŋ
ə disˌgreis   ə ˅ʃeim   ə 'bad ˅θiŋ

    it s ə disˌgreis ðət ʃi ʃəd əv bin inˌsʌltid laik ‚ðat.
    it s ə 'piti ðət ju ʃəd əv 'mist ˅siːiŋ im.
    it s ə 'bad ˙θiŋ ðət ðei ʃəd bi 'pʌniʃt sou si˅viəli.

2. Precursory it followed by such adjectives as:

ˈwʌndəf| ˈrait ˈrekəˈmendid ˈstreindʒ ˈʌnˈfeə*
ˈnesisri ˈbetə* diˈzaiərəb| səˈpraiziŋ disˈgreisf|
imˈpoːtn̩t ˈgud ədˈvaizəb| iŋˈkredib| imˈposib|

it wəz imˈpoːtn̩t ðət wi ʃəd ˈstaːt wiðaut diˌlei.
it ˈdidn̩t siːm ˈrait ðət wi ʃəd bi inˌdʒoiiŋ auəselvz.
it s ədˈvaizəb| ðət ðə ˈdoː ʃəd bi ˈkept ˌlokt.
it ˈsiːmz ˈstreindʒ ðət ʃi ʃəd əv ˌsed ˌðat.
it s ˈmoust ˈʌnˈfeə ðət ˌai ʃəd əv bin iksˌkluːdid.

3. A predicate expressing feelings or attitudes:

tə bi ˈθaŋkf| tə bi səˈpraizd tə bi ˈsori
tə bi ˈpliːzd tə bi əsˈtoniʃt tə bi əˈnoid
tə bi ˈglad tə bi əˈmeizd tə bi disˈtrest

wi ər ˈoːl ˈθaŋkf| ðət i ʃəd əv isˌkeipt wiðaut ˌindʒəriz.
ˈevriwʌn z səˌpraizd ðət ju ʃəd ˌθink ˌðat.
ai m ˈmoust əˈnoid ðət ju ˌʃudn̩t əv bin iŋˌkluːdid.

4. Principal clauses containing such verbs as:

tə diˈmaːnd tə ˈrekəˈmend tə priˈfə* tə ˈsiː
tu inˈsist tə prəˈpouz tə ˈpromis tə riˈgret
tu ˈəːdʒ tə səˈdʒest tu əˈgriː tu əbˈdʒekt

ðei ˈdidn̩t inˈsist ðət ai ʃəd ˌʃeər it wið ðəm.
wi səˈdʒestid ðət ðei ʃəd ˈweit ə lit| wail.
ˈdount ju əˈgriː ðət ðə ˈpaːti ʃəd bi ˈkans|d?
ai riˈgret ðət ju ʃəd əv bin ˌfiːliŋ niˌglektid.

234 Accusative and infinitive. This is a convenient name for a collocation that foreign students should make a special point of studying and memorizing, for it does some of the work performed by the subjunctive in many other languages, and speakers of such languages often find themselves at a loss for a means of expressing their subjunctive in English. In most cases "accusative and infinitive" is the answer.

It occurs in sentences that refer to emotions or characteristics, and suggests that these will cause or enable something to be done, or (in the negative) that they will prevent its being done. Examples:

ðə ˈrivə z ˈtuː ˈwaid fər əs tə ˈswim əˌkros it.
wud ju ˈlaik mai ˈsistə tə ˈriːd tə ju?

wi ə di'laitid fə ju tə ˌstei əˌnʌðə ˌwiːk.
'didn̩t ju ˙wont əs tə ˈweit fə ju?
ˈðis iz ˌiːzi inʌf fər ˈeniˌbodi tu ˌʌndəˌstand.

With many transitive verbs the entire accusative and infinitive phrase must be regarded as the direct object. It is obvious that in the following sentence tʃildrn̩ alone is not the object of the verb.

ʃi ˈheits hə ˌtʃildrn̩ tə bi ˌleit fə ˌskuːl.

The accusative and infinitive is also used in sentences having precursory subjects.

Examples with precursory ðeə*:

ðə l bi 'plenti əv ˈwəːk fə ju tə ˌduː.
'haz ðə bin i'nʌf ˙sʌn fə ðə 'fruːt tə ˈraipən?
ðə 'mei not ˙biː eni ˈbuks fə ðəm tə ˌriːd.
'woznt ðər ˙eniweə fə ju tə ˈsit?
ðər 'oːt tə bi i˙nʌf ˙fuːd fər ˈevriwʌn tə bi ˌsatisfaid.

Examples with precursory it:

it s riˈdikjuləs əv ju tə riˌakt laik ˌðat.
'iz it ˙difik̩t fə ðəm tə 'faind ˙taim tə ˈsiː mi?
it 'wount ˙duː fə ðəm tə 'gou wiðaut ˈeksəsaiz.
'woznt it ˈtʃaildiʃ əv ðəm tu ˌaːnsə laik ˌðat?
it | bi ə ˈpleʒə fər əs tu ˌentəˌtein ðəm.

THE IMPERATIVE

235 Forms of the imperative. The conjugation of the imperative is based on the infinitive, the six forms of which are set forth in the table in §177, though two of the infinitives shown there are not used in forming imperatives. The imperative has three forms:

<blockquote>

a. The Unemphatic Affirmative

b. The Emphatic Affirmative

c. The Negative.

</blockquote>

Emphasis on the negative is increased by making changes in intonation but not in structure.

The true imperative is used only in the 2nd person, and in its basic form it is not accompanied by any pronoun, the subject juː being usually understood.

There is what may be called an oblique imperative for the 1st and 3rd persons, which takes the form of the true imperative of the verb let, followed by any of the object pronouns except juː. This is the English equivalent of so-called imperative forms in other languages.   Examples:

'let im ˌtrai.   'let s ˌgou.
ˌlet ə ˌweit.   'let əm ˌoːl ˌkʌm.
'let it ˌrein.   (and even: 'let mi ˌsiː).

236   The unemphatic imperative.   This takes the form of the infinitive of the specific verb without tu, but when it is used in this capacity the form must be regarded as a finite.   Two intonations are common, Tune II, which is somewhat peremptory, and Tune III, which is polite and gives the feeling of a request rather than an order.   The following structures are used.

Active Voice, Direct Imperative of Accomplishment.

'biː ˌkwaiət.   'kʌm ˌhiə.   'sit ˌdaun.
ˋbiː ˌəːli.   ˋʃʌt ðə ˌdoə.   ˋweit fə ˌmiː.

Active Voice, Perfect Imperative of Accomplishment.

'hav ˌdʌn wið ðis ˌnonsn̩s !

Active Voice, Direct Imperative of Activity.

'biː ˋweitiŋ fə mi wen ai ˌkʌm ˌbak.

Passive Voice, Direct Imperative of Accomplishment.

'biː iŋˋkʌridʒd bai joː səkˌses.

In many cases such as this the participle must be regarded as an adjectival complement:

'biː priˈpeəd fər ˋeniθiŋ.

In a familiar style of speech, which in other situations may sound rude, the pronoun juː is inserted before the imperative.   Probably starting as a device for selecting from a group the person to whom the imperative was addressed, this form is now used even when only one person is present, to suggest a sense of urgency or emphasis. While this structure is the same as that of a second person statement

in the present tense of accomplishment, the two meanings are distinguished because in the imperative the pronoun is always stressed, whereas in the statement it is normally unstressed.

Imperative: 'juː ˙kʌm ˌhiə.   'juː ˙sit ˌdaun.   'juː ˙weit fə ˌmiː.
Statement: ju 'kʌm ˌhiə.   ju 'sit ˌdaun.   ju 'weit fə ˌmiː.

In American English, when a speaker announces an intended course of action, the hearer often expresses approval by the formula: 'juː ˅duː ðat.   The statement would be: ju ˅duː ðat.

With the verb tə biː the two structures are quite distinct:

   'juː bi ˙leiiŋ ðə ˌteibl̩.   ju ə 'leiiŋ ðə ˌteibl̩.

237   The emphatic imperative.   In this case the specific verb form reverts to its infinitive status, being preceded by the finite duː. With this structure Tune II suggests impatience and Tune III pleading.   The pronoun juː is not used with the emphatic imperative. The following structures are used.

Active Voice, Direct Imperative of Accomplishment.

   'duː bi ˌkwaiət.   'duː ˙kʌm ˌhiə.   'duː ˙sit ˌdaun.
   ˅duː bi ˌəːli.   ˅duː ˌʃʌt ðə ˌdoə.   ˅duː ˌweit fə ˌmiː.

Active Voice, Perfect Imperative of Accomplishment.

   'duː ˙hav ˌdʌn wið ðis ˌnonsn̩s !

Active Voice, Direct Imperative of Activity.

   ˅duː bi ˌweitiŋ fə mi wen ai ˌkʌm ˌbak.

Passive Voice, Direct Imperative of Accomplishment.

   ˅duː bi iŋˌkʌridʒd bai joː səkˌses.

238   The negative imperative.   This is formed by placing **dount** before the infinitive of the specific verb.   In this case Tune II is very severe and seldom used.   A warning or insinuating note is given by placing an Undivided Tune III on the last stressed word of the utterance, while a pleading note is conveyed by a Divided Tune III with the fall on **dount** and the rise on the last stressed word.

Active Voice, Direct Imperative of Accomplishment.

   'dount bi ˅loŋ.   'dount ˙gou ə˅wei.   'dount ˙stand ˅ʌp.
   ˅dount bi ˌloŋ.   ˅dount ˌgou əˌwei.   ˅dount ˌstand ˌʌp.

'dount bi ⱽleit.   'dount ˙ʃʌt ðə ⱽdoə.   'dount ⱽweit.
ˎdount bi ˌleit.   ˎdount ˌʃʌt ðə ˌdoə.   ˎdount ˌweit.

Active Voice, Direct Imperative of Activity.

'dount bi ˙lukiŋ ˎtaiəd wen ju ˌget ðeə.
ˎdount bi ˌstaːtiŋ wiðˌaut mi.

With verbs of action a common variant of this form is:

'dount ˙gou 'liːviŋ joː ˙θiŋz əⱽbaut.
ˎdount ˌgou ˌtoːkiŋ tu ˙evribodi əbaut it.

Passive Voice, Direct Imperative of Accomplishment.

'dount bi ˎnoutist if ju kən ˌhelp it.
ˎdount bi disˌkʌridʒd bai joː ˌfeiljə.

The negative imperative sometimes has the pronoun juː incorporated in familiar speech. It therefore has the same construction as the interrogative-negative, but the intonation provides a clear distinction between the two, as the imperative nearly always takes a Tune III (usually undivided), which would be extremely rare in the interrogative-negative.

'dount ˙juː 'gou əⱽwei.   'dount ˙juː 'ʃʌt ðə ⱽdoə.
'dount ˙juː ˙gou ˎtoːkiŋ tu ˌevribodi əˌbaut it.

With the verb tə biː there is again no confusion:

'dount ˙juː bi ⱽleit.   'dount ˙juː bi ˙staːtiŋ wiðⱽaut mi.
'dount ˙juː ˙biː disˎkʌridʒd bai joː ˌfeiljə.

THE SPECIFIC VERBALS

239 Forms of the verbals. The conjugating and specific verbals (§126) combine to form compound verbals, as shown below.

Infinitives. Specific verbs have six of these:

Accomplishment		*Activity*
	Active Infinitives	
tə teik	Direct	tə bi teikiŋ
tu əv teikən	Perfect	tu əv bin teikiŋ
	Passive Infinitives	
tə bi teikən	Direct	———
tu əv bin teikən	Perfect	———

Negative infinitives are formed by placing the negative adverb **not** before the tu of the infinitive ; they occur frequently in infinitive phrases, but in forming tenses negation is more usually expressed by using a negative finite. All the infinitives are used both in infinitive phrases and in the formation of tenses, but it must be remembered that intransitive verbs have no passive forms, whether infinitives or participles.

Participles. Specific verbs have seven of these:

Accomplishment		*Activity*
	Active Participles	
teikən	Direct	teikiŋ
haviŋ teikən	Perfect	haviŋ bin teikiŋ
	Passive Participles	
bin teikən	Direct	biːiŋ teikən
haviŋ bin teikən	Perfect	———

It will be noticed that the past participle is at the top of the left hand side of the table (under accomplishment) while the present participle heads the right side (under activity). It may seem strange to find these participles under these respective heads with no time distinction made between them, but since the past participle can be applied to the future (ai ʃl əv teikən) and the present participle to the past (ai wəz teikiŋ) the traditional names would seem to be unreliable guides to the functions of these verbals, which are as follows. The past participle and its compounds indicate (1) accomplishment and (2) the passive, and may refer to the past, the present or the future. The present participle and its one compound indicate activity at any time, but in the two passive tenses of activity their function is taken over by the conjugating verbal **biːiŋ**, since the specific verb must be in the past participle to indicate the passive.

As for the uses of the seven forms appearing in the table, we find that the four direct (i.e. non-perfect) participles all enter into the formation of tenses and, with the exception of the passive direct of accomplishment, all occur in participial phrases. On the other hand the three perfect participles (which use the conjugating verbal **haviŋ** as their first component) are not used in tenses but function only in participial phrases.

Negative participles, which occur chiefly in participial phrases, are formed by placing the negative adverb not before the first component of the participle.

THE INFINITIVES

240 Uses of the infinitives. In the conjugation of specific verbs their infinitives are used in the following cases.

1. The direct infinitive of accomplishment is used in the present and past direct tenses of the aspect of accomplishment in all forms of these tenses except the unemphatic affirmative.

2. All six infinitives are used in the special past tenses formed with the finite juːst, though it should be noted that some of these tenses do not occur very frequently.

3. All six infinitives are used in forming the modal tenses.

Apart from tense formation, the infinitives are used in the following ways:

1. As subject of another verb.
2. As logical subject after precursory it or ðeə*.
3. As object or part object of another verb.
4. As complement or part complement of another verb.
5. In phrases introduced by conjunctives.
6. As adverbials of purpose.
7. In elliptical structures.

241 Infinitives as subjects of verbs. Any of the six infinitives shown in §239 can be used in either their affirmative or their negative form as verbal nouns to form the subject of another verb, usually the verb tə biː, though many other verbs can be used in this position. Examples:

tə ˈhaid ðə ˈletə wəz ðə ˈwəːk əv ə ˌmoumənt.
ˈnot tu əv inˇvaitid ðəm wud əv əˋfendid ðəm.
tə bi ˈəːniŋ ˈoːl ðat ˈmʌni ˈmʌs bi ˈveri ˌgratifaiiŋ.
tu əv bin ˈkoːziŋ sou ˈmʌtʃ ˈtrʌbḷ iz disˋgreisfḷ.
ˈnot tə bi ˈheld risˇponsibḷ riˈliːvd mi triˋmendəsli.
tu əv bin misˈteikən fə ˇjuː wəz ˈkwait ə ˋkomplimənt.

A sentence like the following has one infinitive as subject and another as subject complement:

tə ˈnou ˌoːl iz tə fəˈgiv ˌoːl.

This structure, which does not lend itself to the formation of questions, is more used in the written language than in the spoken, where it is almost always replaced by the precursory it structure. In the above examples the infinitive phrase is the grammatical, as well as the logical, subject of the principal verb ; by moving the infinitive phrase to the end of the sentence and bringing in precursory it as the grammatical subject the sentence can be made more manageable, especially in the interrogative. The various types of this device will now be considered.

INFINITIVES AFTER PRECURSORY SUBJECTS

242 With verbs of complete predication. Certain verbs that are normally transitive are sometimes used without an object in order to give them more general application, though with some of them the indefinite pronoun wʌn is often inserted. If an infinitive phrase is the subject it is almost always displaced by precursory it. The following are among such verbs:

ˈsatisˌfai	kloi	boə*	pliːz	duː
ˈseiʃiˌeit	səˈfais	taiə*	help	pei

it səˈfaisiz tə ˈsei ðət ˈevriθiŋ z ˈgouiŋ ˌsmuːðli.
wud it ˈhelp tə ˈnou ðət joː ˈfrendz ˈsimpəθaizd ?
it ud ˈnevə ˌduː tə bi ˌbiːtn̩ bai sʌtʃ ə ˌwiːk ˌtiːm.
d ju ˈθiŋk it ˈpeiz tu ˈadvəˈtaiz ?

243 With transitive verbs. In this case the infinitive phrase follows the object of the verb. The following are typical of the verbs that are used in this structure.

ˈstimjuˌleit	diˈlait	taiə*	veks	inˈreidʒ
ikˈsait	ˈflatə*	ʃok	ˈsadn̩	disˈtres
əsˈtoniʃ	ˈhjuːmə*	ˈiriˌteit	griːv	ˈsikən
səˈpraiz	pliːz	ˈdisəˈpoint	boə*	disˈgʌst
əˈmjuːz	tempt	ˈwʌri	əˈnoi	ˈfraitn̩
riˈfreʃ	ˈgratiˌfai	ˈboðə*	həːt	ˈteriˌfai
ˈintrist	ˈsatisˌfai	əːk	ˈʌpˈset	ˈhoriˌfai

it ˈflatəz ɪm tə bɪ ˌkoːld ˌsəː.
ˈwud ɪt ˈɪntrɪst ju tə ˈhɪə ðat ˈlektʃə?
ɪt ˈwount ˈʃok hə tə ˌhɪə ju ˌtoːk laik ˌðat.
ˈdidṇt ɪt əˈnoi ðəm tə bi ˈleft biˈhaind?
ˈwai dəz ɪt inˈreidʒ ə ˈbul tə ˈsiː ə ˈred ˌrag?

There is no difficulty in putting such sentences into the passive voice. Note that the precursory ɪt is no longer required.

ˈwud ju bi ˈɪntrɪstid tə ˈhɪə ðat ˈlektʃə?
ʃi ˈwount bi ˈʃokt tə ˌhɪə ju ˌtoːk laik ˌðat.

244 With adjective complements. In this case, where a verb of incomplete predication is followed by an adjective complement (predicative adjective) the infinitive phrase follows immediately after the complement provided the sentence is intended to have general or indefinite application. If, however, it is intended to apply to a certain person or thing, a noun or determiner governed by a preposition is inserted between the complement and the infinitive, thus engendering one form of the accusative and infinitive construction described in §234. The preposition used is **ov** if the adjective is to apply directly to the person named, and **fo:*** if it is to apply to the situation. Some adjectives may apply to either, and consequently take whichever preposition is appropriate to the case.

The following are typical adjectives used in this construction:

With ov	*With* ov *or* fo:*	*With* fo:*
kaind	nais	ˈiːzi
ˈhelpfḷ	ˈriːznəbḷ	ˈnoːmḷ
ˈdipluˈmatik	ˈinkɛnˈsistənt	ˈfiːzibḷ
inˈtelidʒṇt	ˈtʃaildiʃ	ˈpraktikəbḷ
brait	ˌʌnˈriːznəbḷ	ˈdifikḷt
ˈsensibḷ	riˈdikjuləs	ˈdeindʒərəs
ˈsivḷ	əbˈsəːd	ˈjuːslis
ˈkreizi	ˈfuːliʃ	ˌabˈnoːmḷ
inˈsein	ˈsenslis	imˈposibḷ
mad	ˈstjuːpid	ˈnesisri

Examples of general or indefinite application:

ɪt wəz ˈsenslis tu əv ˌtould ðəm əbaut ɪt.
ˈwud ɪt əv bin ˈjuːslis tu ˈweit fə ðəm?

it 'izn̩t ˙difik|t tə bi 'teikən ᵛin bai im.
'wount it bi ˙nais tə bi 'pleiiŋ ˋgolf ə͵gein !

Examples of restricted application.

it | bi ˋlʌvli fə ju tə bi ͵steiiŋ in ðə ͵ˎkʌntri.
'iz it ˙ʌn'riːzn̩əb| əv mi tə ˙wont sm̩ ˙moə?
it 'wount bi ˋfiːzib| fə ju tə ͵kʌm tə͵moru.
'wozn̩t it ˋkaind əv hə tu əv in͵vaitid əs !

245 With noun complements. This structure resembles the
foregoing, except that the complement is a noun instead of an
adjective. In the restricted version foː* is again used for the
situation, but ov is replaced by on . . . paːt or on ðə paːt əv. . . .
The following typical nouns used in this structure are preceded by
the indefinite article.

ˋlʌkʃəri	ˋonə*	'inspi ˋreiʃn̩	fag	faːs
ˋblesiŋ	ˋkʌmfət	'satis ˋfakʃn̩	boə*	ʃok
dʒoi	ri ˋliːf	'konsu ˋleiʃn̩	ˋnjuːsn̩s	ˋinsʌlt
triːt	help	'afek ˋteiʃn̩	ə ˋbjuːs	oː ˋdiːl
di ˋlait	ˋdjuːti	ˋplati͵tjuːd	ˋlaib|	ʃeim
ˋpleʒə*	ˋpiti	ris'ponsi ˋbiliti	ˋskand|	dis ˋgreis
ˋtraiʌmf	strein	'impu ˋziʃn̩	ə ˋfens	ˋautreidʒ

Examples of general or indefinite application :

it s ə ˋʃeim ͵not tə bi in͵dʒoiiŋ ðis ͵brait ͵sʌnʃain.
'wud it bi ə ˊfag tə ˙teik ðə ˙tʃildrn̩ wið ju ?
it 'wount bi ə ˋtriːt tə ͵trav| sou ͵faː bai ͵koutʃ.
'wozn̩t it ə ˋpiti tu əv bin ͵biːtn̩ bai sou ͵lit| ?

Examples of restricted application :

it wəz ən ə'bjuːs on ðə ˙paːt əv ðə ˋfəːm tə dis͵mis ju.
'iz it ə ˊboə fə ju tə bi ˙sitiŋ ˙hiə ˙duːiŋ ˙nʌθiŋ ?
it 'izn̩t ən ˙afek ˋteiʃn̩ on ͵həː paːt tə ͵smouk.
'hazn̩t it bin ə ri ˊliːf fə ju tə ˙get ə ˙wei fər ə bit ?

The following are some nouns that are used as uncountables and
are therefore not preceded by the indefinite article.

fʌn	ˋimpjudn̩s	ˋprigiʃnis	ˋfeivəritizm̩	ˋtriːzn̩
ˋraʃnis	ˋarugəns	ˋkauədis	stju ˋpiditi	ˋtoːtʃə*

Examples of general or indefinite application:

it s ˈfeivəritizm̩ tə ˌteik joː ˌsistər ən ˌnot ˌjuː.
ˈwudn̩t it bi ˈfʌn tə ˈgou əˈbroːd ðis ˌjiə?

Examples of restricted application:

it s ˈarugəns on ˌjoː paːt tə ˌtoːk laik ˌðat.
it s ˈtoːtʃə fə ˌmiː tə bi ˌweəriŋ ðiːz ˌʃuːz.

Some popular noun phrases such as the following are used in
this sentence pattern:

'eni ˈjuːs   'eni ˈgud   ə 'gud aiˈdiə   'lak əv ˈkonfidn̩s
'nou ˈjuːs   'nou ˈgud   ðə 'dʌn ˈθiŋ   'wont əv ˈtakt
'feə ˈplei   ðə ˈfaʃn̩   'bad ˈteist

Examples:

it ud bi 'nou ˈjuːs (fə ju) tə 'kʌm ˈbak ˌleitə.
'iz it ˈeni ˈgud (fər əs) tə 'trai əˈgein?
it 'wozn̩t ə ˈgud aiˈdiə tə 'liːv im bai imˌself.
ˈwudn̩t it ˈʃou 'lak əv ˈkonfidn̩s tə riˈfjuːz tə ˈgou?

246 Infinitives after precursory ðeə*. In this case the logical
subject of the sentence is a noun or pronominal determiner and
the infinitive functions as an attributive or predicative adjective
to this. Typical nouns used in this structure are:

niːd   diˈzaiə*   prəˈpouzl̩   'opəˈtjuːniti   ˈriːzn̩
koːl   ˈəːdʒn̩si   riˈzolv   niˈsesiti   ˈtʃaːns
koːz   əˈtempt   inˈtenʃn̩   ˌtempˈteiʃn̩   taim
wiʃ   əˈkeiʒn̩   diˈsiʒn̩   ˈtendənsi   ˈhʌri

Examples of general or indefinite application:

ðə z 'nou ˈkoːl tə ˈget sou ikˈsaitid əˌbaut it.
həz ðə 'biːn ən ˈopəˈtjuːniti tə disˈkʌs ðə ˈmatə?
ðə 'wount bi ə ˈtʃaːns tə get ˌsəːvd.
'wozn̩t ðər ə diˈsiʒn̩ tu əˈboliʃ ˈðat ˈsistəm?
ðə z bin ən əˈtempt tə ˈblou ʌp ðə ˌbridʒ.

Examples of restricted application:

ðə z bin ə prəˈpouzl̩ fə 'miː tə ˈteik ˌouvə.
iz ðər 'eni ˈhʌri fə ˈðis ˈwəːk tə bi ˈfiniʃt?

ðə z 'nou ni'sesiti fə ðəm tə bi in,fo:md.
'woznt ðər ə 'dʒenrl̩ di'zaiə fə ðə 'ski:m tə bi 'dropt?
'wil ðə bi 'eni 'ni:d fə mi tə 'kʌm tə'moru?

The following examples show the same structure having as its logical subject pronominal determiners instead of nouns.

General:

ðə z 'sʌmbədi tə 'si: ju.
ə ðər 'eni 'ʌðəz tə bi 'put ə'wei?
ðər 'iznt 'mʌtʃ tə bi 'sed fər it.
'wount ðə bi i'nʌf tə bi 'getin 'on wið?
ðər ə 'ði:z tə bi ,finiʃt.

Restricted:

ðə l bi 'plenti fə him tə 'du: in ðə 'ga:dn̩.
iz ðə 'mʌtʃ 'mo: fə ðəm tə 'teik ə'wei?
ðə z bin 'noubədi fə mi tə 'to:k tu.
'wə:nt ðər 'eni fə ju tə 'sta:t on?
ðə 'mait bi 'sevrl̩ fər əs tə ,tʃu:z from.

INFINITIVES AFTER NORMAL SUBJECTS

247 Infinitives as objects of verbs. Infinitive phrases used after such verbs as the following may be regarded as direct objects.

'ʌndə'teik	ri'fju:z	tempt	ə'fo:d	lə:n
ri'membə*	di'ma:nd	'promis	bi'gin	tʃu:z
kən'tinju	pri'tend	fə'get	houp	

wi fə'got tə 'mi:t ðəm ət ðə ,steiʃn̩.
həv ðei 'promist tə 'let əs 'boru it?
'ai ,ka:nt ə'fo:d tə ,smouk sou ,mʌtʃ.
'iznt jo: 'sistə 'lə:nin tə 'draiv ə 'ka:?
'wil ju ri'membə tə 'hav it 'redi bai 'wenzdi?

Verbs such as the following also take infinitive phrases as their object:

laik	wont	pri'fə:*	iks'pekt	heit
lʌv	wiʃ	di'zaiə*	in'tend	mi:n

ai 'heit tə ,li:v ju ,o:l bai jo:,self.
d ju pri'fə: 'not tu in,vait ðəm tə ðə ,pa:ti?

ˈai ʃudn̩t ˌlaik tə ˌbeið in sʌtʃ ˌkould ˌwoːtə.
ˈmaitn̩t ðei bi inˈtendiŋ tə ˈkʌm təˈmoru?
ˈwai d ju ˈwont tə ˈrait ðə ˈletə joːˌself?

When restricted in application by the insertion of a noun or determiner before the infinitive, these verbs take the accusative and infinitive combination as their object.

wi ʃəd ˈlʌv ju tə ˌkʌm ən ˌstei wið əs.
ai ˈdount ˈwont ju tu ʌpˈset joːself.
d ju priˈfəː ðə təˈmaːtuz tə bi ˈsəːvd ˈroː?
ˈdount ju inˈtend ðə ˈnjuː pəˈteituz tə bi ˈpiːld?
ai ˈment ju tə ˈkʌm ˈəːliə.

This is the structure used in the active voice form of causative get (§230).

Another small class of verbs that may take an infinitive phrase as object includes:

riˈkwaiə*	priˈpeə*	ˈpromis	tʃuːz	aːsk
riˈkwest	diˈsaid	trʌst	niːd	beg

ˈðis ˈruːm ˈniːdz tə bi ˈriːˈdekəˌreitid.
did ju riˈkwest tə bi ˈtraːnsˈfəːd tə ˈlʌndən?
ai ˈdidn̩t ˈpromis tu əˌkʌmpəni ju.
ˈwudn̩t ju ˈbeg tə ˈdifər on ˈðat ˈpoint?
ˈwen did ju priˈpeə tə ˈteik ði igˌzamiˌneiʃn̩?

Any noun or determiner that is inserted to restrict the application of the verb becomes its object, and the infinitive then becomes a predicate of result.

ði ˈaksidn̩t diˈsaidid mi tə ˈgiv ˈʌp ˌdraiviŋ.
də ðə ˈklʌb ˈruːlz riˈkwaiə wʌn tə bi ˈsponsəd?
ai ˈwudn̩t ˈtrʌst ðəm tə bi ˈpʌŋktʃuəl.
ˈkudn̩t ju ˈaːsk ə tə ˈweit ə ˈfjuː ˈminits?
ˈwai did ju ˈtʃuːz ˈmiː tə ˌhelp ju?

This is the structure used in the idiom tə ˌhav ə ˈgud ˈmaind (ˈnot) tə. . . .

The following verbs take a noun or determiner as a direct object, and this is followed by the infinitive without tu.

meik	əbˈzəːv	siː	smel	wotʃ
let	ˈnoutis	hiə*	fiːl	

ju kən 'fiːl ði 'əːθ 'trembļ ʌndə joː ˌfiːt.
'wil ju 'meik ðə 'tʃildrṇ 'stop 'kworļiŋ?
ju 'aːnt 'wotʃiŋ mi ˌdemənstreit ˌhau tə ˌwəːk it.
'didṇt ju 'noutis im 'heziteit in iz 'spiːtʃ?

This is the structure used in the active voice form of causative hav (§230).

The verb help is followed by the infinitive with or without tu.

ai v bin 'helpiŋ (tə) 'plaːnt ðeə 'rouziz.
'wil ju 'help mi (tu) 'ʌn'pak ðis 'paːsļ?

Verbs such as the following do not take the infinitive alone as their object, but require an accusative and infinitive combination in order to make sense.

'ʌndə'stand	sə'pouz	bi'liːv	teik
ək'nolidʒ	ə'sjuːm	faind	nou

ai 'ʌndə'stand im tə bi ən 'ekspəːt in ˌðiːz ˌmatəz.
kən wi ə'sjuːm ðə 'figəz tə bi 'absə'luːtli ri'laiəbļ?
ðəi 'tuk mi tə bi ə 'distənt 'relətiv əv ˌðeəz.

A passive construction is often preferred:

ʃi z bi'liːvd tu əv 'entəd ðə 'kʌntri i'liːgļi.
ə ðei sə'pouzd tə bi ə'raiviŋ 'əːli?
ju wə 'noun tu əv bin ˌdriŋkiŋ ˌhevili.

Another passive structure in which most of these verbs occur is precursory it heralding a subordinate clause introduced by the general conjunction ðat.

'izṇt it ək'nolidʒd ðət 'iŋgliʃ iz 'iːzi tə 'ləːn?
it wəz 'faund ðət ðə 'lok əd bin 'tampəd wið.

248 Infinitives as predicates.   Although the following verbs are transitive they do not take the infinitive phrase as their object. They have a noun or determiner as object and the infinitive is a predicate of result.

'stimju,leit	in'strʌkt	ri'maind	'oːdə*	foːs
in'spaiə*	kə'maːnd	prompt	tiːtʃ	tel
iŋ'kʌridʒ	kəm'pel	əd'vaiz	tempt	bid
'priːdis'pouz	ə'blaidʒ	in'vait	kouks	pres
in'djuːs	di'rekt	im'pel	braib	get

in`sait	prə`vouk	in`eibļ	liːd	muːv
in`tais	ə`point	pə`mit	woːn	liːv
pə`sweid	dis`pouz	ə`lau	əːdʒ	set

wi v pə'sweidid ən ˈekspəːt tə 'luk `intə ðə ˌmatə.

'wil ju inˈstrʌkt ðəm tə 'kliːn ˈoːl ðə ʹwinduz?

ðei 'didṇt inˈvait mi tu əᵛkʌmpəni ðəm.

'kudṇt ju ʹkouks ðə ˈbeibi tu ˈiːt iz ˈfuːd?

hə 'tiːtʃə z `foːsiŋ ə tə ˌduː əː ˌhoumwəːk.

Some verbs take a prepositional object before the infinitive.

wi məst 'send fə ðə `plʌmə tə 'mend ðə ˌpaip.

ðei 'kudṇt priˈveil əpon mi tə 'meik ə ˌspiːtʃ.

'kaːnt ju ˈaːsk fər ə ʹkoːkskruː tu ˈoupən ðə ˈbotļ?

Others take an adverb before the infinitive.

ʃi 'egd im ˈon tə kriːʹeit ə dis`təːbəns.

wiː l 'pak it ˈʌp tə 'send it bai ˌpoust.

The following verbs take two objects, the first being a direct object and the second a prepositional object that combines with the infinitive to express purpose.

giv	bai	send	teik	meik
lend	get	briŋ	liːv	bild

ai v 'meid it fə ˈjuː tə ˌweə.

ju məs 'briŋ wʌn fə mi tə ˌsiː.

wil ju 'giv ðis ʹrekoːd ˈpleiə fər əs tə ˈrafļ?

The indirect object may be placed first ; in this case the infinitive phrase alone expresses purpose, but may also be felt to have a certain adjectival relationship towards the direct object.

wi ə 'baiiŋ ðə ˈgəːlz 'njuː `dresiz tə ˌweər ət ðə ˌpaːti.

'didṇt ju 'liːv ðə ˈtʃildrṇ eni ʹtoiz tə ˈplei wið?

ju 'havṇt ˈlent mi ə `buk tə ˌriːd ˌleitli.

Verbs such as the following are often followed directly by an infinitive phrase, which functions as a complement although some of the verbs are often transitive, especially those in the first two columns.

kən`tinju	`trʌbļ	`heziˌteit	`hapən	keə*
`manidʒ	`heisṇ	in`devə*	weit	deə*
ə`reindʒ	tʃaːns	ə`griː	ə`piə*	
ri`fjuːz	trai	kən`sent	siːm	

ai 'tʃaːnst te siː it in ðə ˏnjuːspeipə.
wud i 'deə tə ˙disə˙bei joːr ˊoːdəz?
ju 'mʌsn̩t ə˙piə tə ˙nou 'eniθiŋ əˋbaut it.
'kaːnt wi ə˙reindʒ tə 'muːv ðə ˙fəːnitʃər on ˊfraidi?
'wai əv ðei ri'fjuːzd tə ˙teik əs ˏwið ðəm?

Three of the above verbs can take an accusative and infinitive complement:

ju məst ə'reindʒ fər ˙evribodi tə bi ˏprezn̩t.
ʃi 'dʌzn̩t ˙keə fər əs tə disˋkʌs ðə ˏmatə.
'didn̩t ðei ˙weit fə ju tə 'giv ðə ˊsign̩|?

249 Infinitives after conjunctives. The infinitives are used after all the conjunctives except wai and if. Examples:

ai 'kaːnt ˙θiŋk 'huː(m) tə kənˏsʌlt.
hi 'didn̩t ˙nou ˋhuːz ʌm˛brelə tə ˏteik.
ai ˏhav 'nou aiˋdiə ˏwot tə ᵛθiŋk əv hə.
ju məst 'aːsk ə pə˙liːsmən 'witʃ ˏbʌs tə ˏteik.
'tel mi 'weə tə ˙gou ən 'hau tə ˋget ðeə.
d ju 'nou ˙wen tə ˙riŋ ðə ˊbel?
həv ju di'saidid ˙weðə tə ˊgou oː ˙not?
ai 'wont tə ˙nou 'hau ˙hai tə ˋbild ðə ˏwoːl.

250 Infinitives as adverbials of purpose. Purpose is expressed by infinitive phrases introduced by sou əz or (in oːðə) tu.

ai m 'wəːkiŋ ˋhaːd ˏnau 'sou əz tu ˙əːn ˙moː ˏmʌni.
wi 'duː ðəm ˙veri ˏkeəfli, sou əz 'not tə ˏspoil ðəm.
in 'oːdə tə ˙get ðəm ˏtʃiːpə, hi 'boːt ðəm ˏhoul˛seil.
ri'piːt it ˙evri ˏdei, in 'oːdə ˙not tə fəˏget it.
ai v 'kʌm hiə tə ˋwəːk, ˋnot tə ˏplei.

251 Infinitives in elliptical structures. Infinitives are used in certain constructions having no finite verb.

'wai ˏtrʌbl̩?   'wai not ˙teik ə ˏholidi?
tə 'tel ju ðə ˏtruːθ, ai 'dount ˋlaik im.
'oːdəz fə təˏmoru—'dʒon tə ri˙siːv ˏvizitəz, 'meəri tu ə˙tend
   tə ðə 'korisˋpondəns.

THE PARTICIPLES

252 Uses of the participles. In the conjugation of specific verbs, as can be seen from the tables in §§148–152, the past and present participles of these verbs are used in the following cases:

Past Participle.

> In the active voice, to form the three perfect tenses of the aspect of accomplishment.
> In the passive voice, to form all the tenses, i.e., six in the aspect of accomplishment and two in the aspect of activity.

Present Participle.

> In the active voice, to form the six tenses of the aspect of activity.

In addition to these, the following extra-temporal functions of the participles have already been discussed:

Past Participle.

> Passive participial adjectives (§§105–7).
> Predicate of result in the passive form of causative **get** and **hav** (§230).

Present Participle.

> Active participial adjectives (§§102–4).
> Nouns (§§49–50).

Other uses of the participles are:

1. In participial phrases.
2. In absolute constructions.
3. As gerund (present participles only).
4. As half-gerund (present participles only).

In considering the first two of these functions it is preferable to classify the participles by the system used in the table in §239.

253 The ing-form as a noun. When the ing-form is functioning as a noun proper, it has no verbal function. It may be used in this capacity in three ways, the first two of which present no problems.

1. *As a concrete noun.*

ðə ˈsiːliŋ	ə ˋkaːviŋ	mai ˋhandraitiŋ
ə ˋreiliŋ	ə ˋmiːtiŋ	ðə ˈrait ˋtəːniŋ
ən ˋoupniŋ	jɔː ˋstokiŋ	ə ˈhjuːmən ˌbiːiŋ

2. *As a verbal noun.*

ðə kəˈrektiŋ əv ðə ˌpruːfs (= the correction).
ðə ˈbildiŋ əv ðə ˌbridʒ (= the construction).
d ju ˈlaik ˈfrentʃ ˈkukiŋ? (= cookery).
ai v ˈnevə ˋsiːn sʌtʃ ˌgouiŋz ˌon. (= behaviour).

3. *As a verbal noun qualifying another noun.*

ə ˋwoːkiŋ ˌstik (a stick used when one is walking).
ə ˋweitiŋ ˌruːm (a room in which people wait).
ə ˋspiniŋ ˌwiːl (a machine for making thread).
ə ˋrokiŋ ˌtʃeə* (a chair in which one can rock oneself).
ə ˋrouiŋ ˌman (a man who often rows a boat).

These collocations must not be confused with those in which an adjectival ing-form is used to qualify a noun. Although in a few cases the same words may be used, the two collocations are distinguished by having different stress-patterns. The kinetic stress on the first component (as in the five examples given above) indicates that the thing named by the second component is intended to facilitate the action named in the first, or if a person, that he is in the habit of performing the action. If the kinetic stress is placed on the second component it indicates that the person or thing named is actually performing the action at the moment of speaking, as shown in the following examples:

ə ˈspiniŋ ˌwiːl (a wheel that is actually turning).
ə ˈrokiŋ ˌtʃeə* (a chair that is oscillating).
ə ˈrʌniŋ ˌman (a man who is running).
ə ˈweitiŋ ˌkraud (a crowd that is waiting).
ə ˈgouiŋ kənˌsəːn (an undertaking that is active).

In some cases this stress pattern does not necessarily indicate that the action is being performed at the moment, but that the person or thing named by the second component is in the habit of performing it:

ə 'wəːkiŋ ˌmodᶅ (a model that will perform movements).
pə'foːmiŋ ˌanimᶅz (animals that can perform tricks).
'flaiiŋ ˇfiʃ (fish that can fly when pursued).
ən 'intəˈfiəriŋ ˌbizi,bodi (one who intrudes unnecessarily).

254 Participial phrases.   Three active and three passive participles are used in participial phrases.   They may be made negative by having **not** placed before them.   Examples:

Active Voice.

Perfect participle of accomplishment (haviŋ teikən):
    'haviŋ ˙teikən iz ˌmedsin, hi 'felt ˌbetə.
    'not haviŋ ˇnoutist ˌenibodi, ai ə'sjuːmd ðə ˙haus wəz ˌempti.
Direct participle of activity (teikiŋ):
    'teikiŋ iz ˙hat n̩d ʌm,brelə, hi 'went ˙aut əv ðə ˌhaus.
    ðə ˇmeid, 'not ˙wontiŋ tə ˌweik mi, 'didn̩t ˙giv mi joː ˌnout.
Perfect participle of activity (haviŋ bin teikiŋ):
    haviŋ bin 'teikiŋ ˙medsin fər ə ˌwiːk, ai m 'fiːliŋ ˌbetə.
    'not haviŋ bin ˇpraktisiŋ iz ˌgolf, hi wəz in 'bad ˌfoːm.

Passive Voice.

Direct participle of accomplishment (teikən):
    'teikən bai sə,praiz, ði 'enəmi sə˙rendəd wið'aut ə ˌfait.
    ðə 'hevi ˌlʌgidʒ, 'not ˙wontid on ðə ˌvoiidʒ, wəz 'stoud ə,wei.
Perfect participle of accomplishment (haviŋ bin teikən):
    'haviŋ bin ˙teikən ˌouvə, ðə 'kʌmpəni wəz 'riːˌoːgə,naizd.
    'not haviŋ bin ˇwoːnd əv ðə ˌdeindʒə, wi 'fel intə ðə ˌtrap.
Direct participle of activity (biːiŋ teikən):
    biːiŋ 'teikən ˙ʌp wið iz ˌraitiŋ, hi fə'got iz ˌdinə.
    'not biːiŋ ə'laud tə ˌsmouk, wi di'saidid tə ˇliːv.

When a participial phrase begins a sentence (as in the majority of the above examples) it must be followed immediately by the noun or pronominal determiner that it is intended to qualify.

255 Participles in absolute constructions.   This structure is more typical of the written language.   It resembles the participial phrase, but begins with a noun (or sometimes with a pronominal determiner), and the participle applies to this and not to the subject of the main clause.   The absolute construction may either precede or follow the main clause.

Active Voice.

Perfect participle of accomplishment (haviŋ teikən):
ðə 'men haviŋ di'saidid tə ˌstraik, ðə 'faktri wəz ˌklouzd.

Direct participle of activity (teikiŋ):
ai 'rapt maiself ˙ʌp ˌwoːmli, ðə 'nait biːiŋ ˙veri ˌkould.

Perfect participle of activity (haviŋ bin teikiŋ):
ði 'ʌðəz haviŋ bin ˙digiŋ ˙oːl ˌdei, 'wiː ˙tuk ˌouvə.

Passive Voice.

Direct participle of accomplishment (teikən):
hiz 'wəːk ˙finiʃt fə ðə ˌdei, ðə 'leibərə ˙went ˌhoum.

Perfect participle of accomplishment (haviŋ bin teikən):
ðə 'piːsiz ˙not haviŋ bin ˌkept, wi 'kudn̩t ri`peə ðə ˌvaːz.

Direct participle of activity (biːiŋ teikən):
ðə 'klaːs wəz ˌkansl̩d, 'moust əv əs biːiŋ ˙niːdid elsˌweə.

256 Gerunds. This name is applied to the participles of verbs when they are used as nouns while still retaining some of their verbal function. Being nouns, gerunds may act in a sentence as the grammatical subject, logical subject after precursory it or ðeə*, direct object or prepositional object. When their meaning is to be restricted to a person or thing other than the subject of the sentence they are preceded by a possessive determiner or by a noun in the genitive, though this last is rarely used in the spoken language. In their verbal capacity gerunds may take an object and be modified by adverbials.

Four of the participial compounds tabulated in §239 may function as gerunds, and negative gerunds may be formed by prefixing **not**.

The following are the four participial compounds used as gerunds:

Active Voice.

Perfect gerund of accomplishment (haviŋ teikən):
ai ri'membə haviŋ `teikən ðis ˌfoutəgraf (the fact that I took it).

Direct gerund of activity (teikiŋ):
ai ri'membə `teikiŋ ðis ˌfoutəgraf (the occasion).

Passive Voice.

Perfect gerund of accomplishment (haviŋ bin teikən):

ai ri'membə haviŋ bin ˙teikən ˋil ˌlaːst ˌnait. (the fact).

Direct gerund of activity (biːiŋ teikən):

ai ri'membə biːiŋ teikən ˋil ˌlaːst ˌnait. (the occasion).

The following further examples of gerunds are classified by function. In the first set the gerund has a general application.

As subject:

ˌhaviŋ kəmˋpleind ˌwount ˌduː ju eni ˌgud.
'getiŋ ˋrid əv it ud bi ðə ˋbest ˌθiŋ.

After precursory it:

it ud bi 'wəːθ ˙wail 'traiiŋ tə ˋsiː im.
it s ˋwʌriiŋ biːiŋ ˌrʌŋ ˌʌp sou ˌleit ət ˌnait.

After precursory ðeə*:

ðə z 'nou ˙getiŋ ˋrid əv im.
ðə z 'tuː ˙mʌtʃ ˋtoːkiŋ in ðə ˌklaːs.

As direct object:

ai ri'gret ˙not haviŋ bin ˋfoutəgraft wið im.
'wai did ju ˙sʌdn̩li ˙stop ˋraitiŋ tə mi?

As prepositional object:

ju ʃəd bi'gin bai ˙riːdiŋ ən ˙eliˋmentri ˌbuk.
did ju 'teik ˙ðat ˙buk wið'aut ˙aːskiŋ pə'miʃn̩?

In the second set of examples the application of the gerund is restricted by the insertion of a possessive determiner or a noun in the genitive before it.

As subject:

ðə 'manz ˙konstənt ˋgrʌmbliŋ ət ˌθiŋz ə'noiz mi.
joː 'haviŋ ˙got ˋrid əv it ˌwount ˌhelp.

After precursory it:

it | bi 'nou ˙gud joː ˙haviŋ kəmˇpleind əbaut it.
'izn̩t it ə ˋʃeim joː ˌfaːðəz ri‚fjuːziŋ tə ˌkʌm!

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As direct object:

> ˋai ˌdount ˌmaind iz ˌhaviŋ bin ˌfoutəgraft wið mi.
> iksˋkjuːz mai ˌnot haviŋ ˌgot ˌredi ˌˇəːliə.

As prepositional object:

> ˈwəːnt ju əˊnoid ət hiz ˙not biːiŋ inˈvaitid tə ðə ˈwediŋ?
> dəz ˈenibodi əbˈdʒekt tu ˈauə ˈpaːtiz ˈdʒoiniŋ ˊjoːz?

257 Half-gerunds. This term was suggested by Sweet to distinguish the popular use in speech of a direct object instead of a possessive before the gerund to restrict its application to a person other than the subject of the main clause. Fowler used the term Fused Participle for this structure. The difference between the gerund and the half-gerund will be clear from the following examples:

> *Gerund:*   ai riˈmembə ðeə ˌduːiŋ it. ˈfansi joː ˌmiːtiŋ əs!
> *Half-gerund:* ai riˈmembə ðəm ˌduːiŋ it. ˈfansi juː ˌmiːtiŋ əs!

The half-gerund is frowned upon by most grammarians, but it is so widely used that its existence has to be recognized. While it sounds absurd in some contexts it is more inoffensive in others, and perhaps the best advice that can be given is to avoid it when it would be the grammatical or logical subject of the sentence and also when it is the object of a verb expressing emotions. The following series of examples gives a range of possible uses of the half-gerund.

Undesirable.

> ˈjuː ˈhaviŋ got ˋrid əv it ˌwount ˌhelp.
> it s ˋimpjudn̩s, ˌðem ˌtoːkiŋ tu əs laik ˌðat
> ai ˋheit ju ˌhaviŋ ˌhad tə ˌweit sou ˈloŋ.

Doubtful.

> ˈwəːnt ju əˌnoid ət ˈhim ˈnot biːiŋ inˈvaitid tə ðə ˊwediŋ?
> ˋai ˌdount ˌmaind ˌhim haviŋ bin ˌfoutəgraft wið mi.
> it s ˈnou ˈjuːs ˈjuː ˈkariiŋ ˈon laik ˇðat.

Less objectionable.

> ai riˈmembə ju ˈklaimiŋ ðat ˋtriː ˌlaːst ˌjiə.
> ai kən ˈʌndəˋstand ju ˌhaviŋ bin ˌˇangri wið im.
> iksˋkjuːz mi ˌmeikiŋ ju ˌweit.
> ˈwot d ju ˈθiŋk əbaut ˈhim ˋdʒoiniŋ əs?
> ai kən ˈdʒʌst iˋmadʒin ðəm ˌtraiiŋ tə ˌduː it.

E.   Adverbs

FORMAL CLASSIFICATION

258   Varieties of adverbs.   Formally, adverbs may be classified as simple, derivative, compound and group-adverbs.   It is difficult, if not impossible, to draw a rigid line of demarcation between these classes.   Adverbs such as **tuː, kwait, jet** are obviously simple and undecomposable, while adverbs such as ˈnaisli, ˈhapili, ˈdeili are clearly formed from existing words by means of the living affix -li. But between these two extremes we find adverbs such as biˈlou, əˈloŋ, which are for all practical purposes undecomposable, while others, such as ˈprezn̩tli, diˈrektli, ˈhaːdli, are formed from recognizable roots, but so differ in meaning from the words from which they are derived that they cannot be said to be built up synthetically.

The compound and group-adverbs also show various degrees of transition between undecomposable words such as ˌhauˈevə* and compounds such as ˈsʌmˌtaimz.   Moreover, the distinction between derivative and compound adverbs is by no means obvious.

The following categories, ranging almost imperceptibly from one extreme to the other, will give some idea of the various formal characteristics of adverbs:

a.   not, in, aut, bai, bak, daun, faː*, of, on, θruː, ʌp, mʌtʃ, kwait, sou, az, stil, jet, hiə*, ðeə*, ðen, nau, suːn, faːst, wel. əˈbʌv, ˈouvə*, ˈʌndə*, ˈəːli, ˈaːftə*, ˈveri, ˈlitl̩, ˈpriti, iˈnʌf, ˈraːðə*, ˈofn̩, ˈseldəm, pəˈhaps (*or* praps).

b.   wʌns, ˈounli, ˈoːlwiz, ˈoːlmoust, ˌoːlˈredi, ˌhauˈevə*, twais, ˈjestədi, təˈmoru, biˈlou, təˈgeðə*, əˈkros, əˈloŋ.

c.   ˈhaːdli, ˈskeəsli, ˈniəli, ˈdiːpli, ˈfuli, ˈʃuəli, ˈleitli, ˈriːsn̩tli, iˈmiːdjətli, diˈrektli, ˈprezn̩tli, ˈʃoːtli, ˈaːftəwədz, paːst, ˈoːltəˈgeðə*, təˈdei.

d.   ˈsʌmˌweə*, ˈeniˌweə*, ˈnouˌweə*, ˈevriˌweə*, ˈsʌmˌtaimz.

e.   ˈmoustli, ˈdeili, ˈwiːkli, ˈmʌnθli, ˈjiəli, ˈsəːtn̩li, ˈsimpli, ˈiːzili, ˈsoftli, ˈkwaiətli, ˈnaisli, ˈkwikli, ˈslouli.

The only distinction between certain compound adverbs and certain group-adverbs is that the former are written as one word

and the latter as two or more words—a mere orthographic distinction which has no linguistic importance.

Some group-adverbs are practically indistinguishable from adverbial phrases, and these again are not always easily distinguishable from adverbial clauses. All these may conveniently be termed *Adverbials*.

259 Comparison of adverbs. A large number of adverbs, notably adverbs of manner, possess degrees of comparison similar to those used with adjectives.

The comparative of superiority is formed by placing **moə*** before and **ðən** after the adverb:

> ˈhiː ˙wəːks moː ˋregjuləli ðən ⌄juː duː.

The comparative of equality is formed by placing the adverb **əz** before and the conjunction **əz** after the adverb:

> ˋai kən ˌduː it əz ˌiːzili əz ⌄juː kan.

The comparative of inferiority is formed by placing **les** before and **ðən** after the adverb:

> ˈai ˙siː im ˈles ˋfriːkwn̩tli ðən ⌄juː duː.

The superlative of superiority is formed by placing **moust** before the adverb:

> ˋhiː z ðə ˌwʌn u ˌraits ðə ˌmoust kəˌrektli.

The superlative of inferiority is formed by placing **liːst** before the adverb:

> ˋʃiː z ðə ˌwʌn ai ˌsiː ˋliːst ˌofn̩.

The following adverbs, however, form their comparative and superlative degrees inflexionally:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
wel	ˋbetə*	best
ˋbadli	wəːs	wəːst
ˋəːli	ˋəːliə*	ˋəːliist
leit	ˋleitə*	ˋleitist
niə*	ˋniərə*	ˋniərist
faː*	ˋfaːðə*, ˋfəːðə*	ˋfaːðist, ˋfəːðist
mʌtʃ	moə*	moust
ˋlitl̩	les	liːst
suːn	ˋsuːnə*	ˋsuːnist
faːst	ˋfaːstə*	ˋfaːstist

Many speakers use the inflexional comparison for certain other adverbs, notably:

ˋsloulɪ	ˋslouə*	ˋslouɪst
ˋkwɪklɪ	ˋkwɪkə*	ˋkwɪkɪst
ˋofn̩	ˋofnə*	ˋofn̩ɪst

FUNCTIONAL CLASSIFICATION

260 Functions of adverbs.   The only general statement that can be made concerning the functions of adverbs is that they serve to modify.   To describe what or how they modify is more difficult. In some cases they modify individual words such as other adverbs, verbs, adjectives and nouns.   In other cases they modify the sentence as a whole, or are sentences in themselves.   Some adverbs are so intimately associated with verbs that the combinations thus formed may be considered as group-verbs, while many others (notably those of place) are adverb complements, analogous to other complements.

It is useful to classify adverbs in four different respects, these being according to:

A. *Meaning* (manner, time, degree, etc.).

B. *Grammatical function* (what parts of speech they modify).

C. *Position* in the sentence.

D. *Footing* in the sentence—whether they are incidental components (epithets) or essential components (complements).

261 Catalogue of adverbs.   In many respects any functional classification of units of so heterogeneous a character must be defective.   However, the information given in §§262–3 should prove of practical utility to the student, if only in providing lists of some of the most important categories of adverbs.

Adverbs that function as connectives (whether conjunctives, relatives or interrogatives) will not be found in the lists; they are fully dealt with in §§316, 320 and 328.

The table below forms a key to the lists; the numbers in the four lettered sections of the table correspond to those used in the four columns of the two lists and in §§264–288 in which the various classes of adverbs are described.

A Meaning	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Manner Place, Direction, Distance Time, Duration Frequency, Repetition Degree, Quantity, Precision Affirmation, Probability, Negation Miscellaneous
B Grammatical Functions	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Modifying Verbs Modifying Adjectives and Adverbs Modifying Nouns and Determiners Modifying Sentences Adverbs which may be Sentences Adverbs used as Complements Adverbial Particles
C Position	1 2 3 4 5	Before the Subject Between Finite and Verbal After the Object Before an Adjective Miscellaneous
D Use or Footing	1 2	As Incidental Components As Essential Components

262 Adverbs. The following list contains only adverbs proper (i.e. one-word adverbs). It is based on a 2,000-word frequency list and contains 267 adverbs.

	A Meaning							B Function							C Position					D Use	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	1	2
'absə,luːtli					5	6			2	3	4	5				2		4		1	
'aksi'dentli	1							1			4					2	3	4		1	2
'aktivli	1							1								2	3	4		1	2
'aktʃuəli						6		1	2	3	4					2		4	5	1	
'az (əz)					5		7		2									4	5		2
'aiðə* . . . (oː*)							7	1	2	3	4				1	2		4	5	1	
'aut		2			5			1		3			6	7			3				2
'aut'said		2						1		3			6				3				2
'aːftə*			3					1			4						3				2
'aːftəwədz			3					1			4				1		3			1	2
'badli	1				5			1									3				2
'bai		2	3					1					6	7	1		3				2
'bak		2	3					1					6	7	1		3				2
bi'foə*			3								4						3				2
bi'lou		2						1		3			6				3				2
'bouldli	1							1								2	3			1	2
'bouθ . . . (ənd)							7	1	2	3						2	3	4	5	1	
'braitli	1							1								2	3			1	2
'breivli	1							1								2	3			1	2
'daun		2						1		3			6	7	1		3				2
'daun'steəz		2						1					6				3				2
'deili				4							4						3				2
'difrn̩tli	1							1									3				2
di'rektli	1		3					1			4						3				2
di'saididli					5	6			2		4	5						4		1	2
'diːpli	1				5			1	2							2	3	4		1	2
'dʌbli					5				2									4			2
'dʒenrəli				4							4					2	3	4		1	2
'dʒentli	1							1								2	3			1	2
'dʒʌst			3		5			1	2	3						2		4	5	1	
'ðeə*		2						1		3		5	6		1		3				2

	A Meaning							B Function							C Position					D Use	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	1	2
ˈðeəfoː*							7				4				1	2		4	5	1	
ˈðen			3				7			3	4				1	2	3				
ˈels					5		7	1		3	4				1		3		5		2
ˈenihau	1						7	1			4				1		3		5		2
ˈeniweə*		2						1	2						1		3	4			2
ˈeniwei	1							1			4				1		3		5		2
ˈevə*		2	3	4							4					2				1	
ˈevriweə*		2						1				5	6				3		5		2
əˈbaut (əproksimitli)					5		7		2	3								4	5	1	
əˈbaut (hiər ən ðeə)		2						1						7			3				2
əˈbiːdjəntli	1							1				5					3			1	2
əˈbroːd		2						1		3			5	6			3				2
əˈbʌv		2						1		3				6			3				2
əˈkeiʒn̩li				4							4	5			1	2	3	4		1	2
əˈkoːdiŋli							7				4				1	2	3			1	
əˈkros		2						1					6	7			3				2
əˈlaik	1									3			6				3				2
əˈloŋ		2								3				7			3				2
əˈloun	1							1		3			6				3		5		2
əˈpaːt	1	2								3			6				3				2
əˈraund		2						1		3				7					5		2
əˈridʒinli	1										4				1	2				1	
əˈsliːp	1									3			6				3				2
əˈwei		2						1		3			6	7	1		3				2
ˈəːdʒn̩tli	1							1				5					3			1	2
ˈəːli			3					1				5					3				2
ˈfaː*		2			5		7	1		3							3				2
ˈfaːst	1							1									3				2
ˈfeəli (dʒʌstli)	1							1									3				2
ˈfeəli (modəritli)					5				2			5				2		4		1	
ˈfəːst		2	3					1				5	6		1	2	3				2
ˈfəːstli							7				4				1					1	
ˈfoːtʃn̩itli	1										4	5			1	2		4		1	
ˈfraitf l̩i	1				5				2									4			2
ˈfriːkwn̩tli				4							4	5				2				1	2

	A Meaning							B Function							C Position					D Use	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	1	2
ˈfuli	1				5			1								2	3	4		1	
ˈfuːliʃli	1							1	2			5				2	3			1	2
ˈfʌnili	1							1									3				2
ˈgladli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
ˈgreitʃi	1							1								2	3			1	2
ˈgreitli					5			1								2	3			1	
ˈhapili	1							1			4	5			1	2	3			1	2
ˈhaːdli					5			1	2	3		5				2		4		1	
ˈhaːf					5			1	2	3						2		4	5	1	
hauˈevə*	1				5			1	2		4				1			4		1	
ˈhiə*		2						1				5	6		1	2	3			1	2
ˈhoulli					5			1	2							2		4	5	1	
igˈzaktli					5	6			2	3		5				2	3	4	5	1	2
ikˈstriːmli					5				2			5						4			2
ikˈstroːdṇrili					5				2									4			2
iˈmiːdjətli			3								4	5				2	3			1	2
ˈin		2						1		3			6	7	1		3				2
ˈindiˈpendəntli	1							1									3				2
ˈindiˈrektli	1							1			4	5				2	3			1	2
inˈdiːd						6	7		2	3	4	5			1	2		4	5	1	
ˈinˈsaid		2						1		3		5	6		1		3				2
inˈtaiəli					5	6		1	2							2		4		1	
inˈtenʃṇli	1							1								2	3	4			2
iˈnʌf					5			1	2			5	6				3		5		2
iˈsenʃli					5	6			2	3								4		1	2
isˈpeʃli					5	6				3	4					2		4	5	1	2
ˈiːkwəli	1				5			1	2							2	3	4		1	
ˈiːvṇ					5	6		1	2	3	4					2	3	4		1	
ˈiːzili	1				5			1	2			5				2	3				2
ˈjes						6						5							5		2
ˈjestədi			3								4	5			1		3				2
ˈjet			3					1			4					2	3				2
ˈjiəli				4							4	5					3				2
ˈjuːʒuəli				4							4	5			1	2		4		1	
ˈkaːmli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2

	A Meaning							B Function							C Position					D Use	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	1	2
ˈkeəfḷi	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
ˈkeəlisli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
kəmˈpliːtli	1				5			1	2			5				2		4		1	2
kənˈsidərəbli					5				2									4		1	
kənˈtinjuəli	1			4				1	2			5				2	3	4		1	2
kənˈviːnjəntli	1				5				2									4		1	2
kəˈrektli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
ˈkjuəriəsli	1				5			1	2		4						3	4		1	
ˈklevəli	1							1			4	5			1	2	3			1	
ˈkliəli	1							1			4	5			1	2	3			1	2
ˈkoːʃəsli	1							1								2	3			1	2
ˈkruəlli	1							1								2	3			1	2
ˈkuːlli	1							1								2	3			1	2
ˈkʌmfətəbli	1				5			1	2			5				2	3				2
ˈkwaiətli	1							1	2			5				2	3			1	2
ˈkwait					5			1	2	3		5						4	5	1	
ˈkwikli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
ˈlaitli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
ˈlaːdʒli					5					2	3	5				2		4		1	
ˈlaːst							7				4	5	6			2	3			1	2
ˈleit	1		3					1			4	5	6				3				2
ˈleitli			3								4	5					3			1	2
ˈles					5			1	2	3		5					3	4			2
ˈliːst					5			1	2								3	4			2
ˈloŋ			3						2	3	4						3	4			2
ˈlʌkili	1										4	5			1		3			1	
ˈmiəli					5			1	2	3	4					2	3	4	5	1	
ˈmoə*					5			1	2	3							3	4			2
ˈmoust					5			1	2							2	3	4			2
ˈmoustli					5					3	4	5				2	3	4	5	1	
ˈmʌnθli				4							4	5					3				2
ˈmʌtʃ					5			1	2							2	3	4		1	
ˈnatʃrəli	1					6		1			4	5			1	2	3	4		1	2
ˈnaiðə* ... (ˈnoː*)						6		1	2	3	4				1	2		4	5		2
ˈnaisli	1							1				5					3				2

	A Meaning							B Function							C Position					D Use	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	1	2
ˈnaitli				4							4	5					3				2
ˈnau			3				7				4	5			1	2	3			1	2
ˈnekst							7	1			4	5	6		1	2	3			1	2
ˈnesisrili						6					4	5				2		4		1	
ˈnevə*				4		6					4	5				2		4		1	2
ˈniə*		2						1		3			6	7			3	4			2
ˈniəli					5			1	2	3		5				2		4		1	
ˈniːdlisli	1							1	2			5					3	4		1	2
ˈnot						6		1	2	3	4				1	2		4	5	1	
ˈnou						6			2		4	5			1			4	5	1	2
ˈnoubli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
ˈnouweə*		2				6		1				5	6				3				2
ˈof		2						1		3			6	7	1		3				2
ˈofn̩				4					2		4	5			1	2	3			1	2
ˈon		2						1		3			6	7	1						2
ˈonərəbli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
ˈonistli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
ˈounli					5			1	2	3	4				1	2		4	5	1	
ˈouvə*		2	3		5			1		3			6	7	1		3				2
ˈoːfli					5				2			5						4			2
ˈoːkwədli	1							1				5					3			1	2
ˈoːlmoust					5			1	2	3		5				2		4		1	2
ˌoːlˈredi			3								4	5				2	3	4		1	2
ˈoːltəˈgeðə*	1				5		7	1	2	3	4				1		3	4	5	1	2
ˈoːlwiz				4					2		4	5				2		4		1	2
ˈpaːst		2						1		3			6	7			3				2
ˈpaːtli					5			1	2	3	4	5				2		4		1	2
ˈpeinʃli	1				5			1	2			5					3	4		1	2
ˈpeiʃn̩tli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
pəˈhaps (or ˈpraps)						6					4	5			1	2			5	1	
pəˈlaitli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
pəˈtikjuləli					5			1	2		4					2	3	4		1	
ˈpəːfiktli	1				5			1	2			5					3	4			2
ˈpəːpəsli	1							1								2	3			1	2
ˈpəːsn̩li	1							1			4				1		3			1	2

	A Meaning							B Function							C Position					D Use	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	1	2
ˈpjuəli					5				2	3							3	4		1	2
ˈpleinli	1							1			4	5			1	2	3			1	2
ˈposibli						6					4	5			1	2		4	5	1	
ˈpraktikli	1				5			1	2	3	4	5				2		4		1	
ˈpraudli	1							1								2	3			1	2
ˈprezṇtli			3								4	5					3			1	2
ˈpriti					5				2									4		1	2
ˈprobəbli						6					4	5			1	2		4	5	1	
ˈpromptli	1							1								2	3			1	2
ˈpropəli	1				5			1			4					2	3			1	2
ˈrapidli	1							1								2	3			1	2
ˈrait (direktli)		2			5				2								3				2
ˈrait (kərektli)	1					6		1					6				3				2
ˈrait (hand said)		2						1		3							3				2
ˈraund		2						1		3			6	7	1		3				2
ˈraːðə*					5			1	2			5				2		4		1	
ˈregjuləli	1			4				1			4	5				2	3			1	2
ˈreəli				4				1				5				2	3			1	2
ˈriəli						6		1	2	3	4	5			1	2		4	5	1	
ˈriːsṇtli			3								4	5	6			2	3			1	2
ˈroŋli	1							1				5					3			1	2
ˈruːdli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
ˈsatisˈfaktərili	1							1				5					3				2
ˈsaundli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
ˈsekəndli							7				4				1					1	
ˈseldəm				4							4	5				2		4		1	2
ˈselfiʃli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
ˈsensibli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
ˈsepəritli	1							1				5					3				2
ˈseifli	1							1				5					3			1	
səˈfiʃṇtli					5			1	2			5					3	4			2
səkˈsesfˌli	1							1				5					3			1	2
ˈsəːtṇli						6					4	5			1	2		4	5	1	
ˈsimpli	1					6		1	2	3	4					2	3	4	5	1	2
sinˈsiəli	1					6		1	2		4	5				2	3	4	5	1	2

	A (Meaning)							B (Function)							C (Position)					D (Use)	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	1	2
si'viəli	1				5			1	2							2	3			1	2
'siəriəsli	1							1			4	5				2	3			1	2
'skeəsli					5			1	2			5				2			4	1	
'slaitli	1				5			1	2			5					3	4		1	2
'slouli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
'smuːðli	1							1				5				2	3				2
'softli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
'sou (manner)	1					6	7	1	2			5	6		1		3	4	5	1	2
'sou (degree)					5				2									4			2
'speʃli	1							1	2							2	3	4		1	2
'stedili	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
'stifli	1							1				5				2	3				2
'stil (mouʃn̩lis)	1							1		3			6				3				2
'stil (iːvn̩ 'nau)			3								4				1	2	3	4		1	2
'stjuːpidli	1							1								2	3			1	2
'streindʒli	1				5			1	2								3	4			2
'stroŋli	1				5			1				5				2	3			1	
'suːn			3								4	5	6		1	2	3			1	2
'sʌdn̩li	1							1			4	5			1	2	3	4		1	2
'sʌmtaimz				4							4	5			1	2	3	4		1	2
'sʌmweə*		2						1		3		5	6				3				2
'swiftli	1							1				5					3				2
'ʃaːpli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
'ʃoːt	1							1									3				2
'ʃoːtli			3					1				5					3				2
'ʃuəli						6					4	5			1	2				1	
'taidili	1							1				5					3				2
'taitli	1							1				5					3				2
'tendəli	1							1				5					3				2
'teribli					5				2			5					3	4		1	2
'teistfʃli	1							1				5					3			1	2
tə'dei			3								4	5			1		3				2
tə'geðə*	1	2	3					1		3	4	5	6		1		3				2
tə'moru			3								4	5			1		3				2
tə'nait			3								4	5			1		3				2

	A Meaning							B Function							C Position					D Use	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	1	2
'truːli	1					6		1	2		4	5			1	2		4		1	2
'tʃiəfli	1							1								2	3			1	2
'tʃiːfli					5	6		1			4					2	3	4		1	2
'tʃiːpli	1							1								2	3			1	2
'tuː (oːlsou)						6			2	3	4		6	7			3				2
'tuː (iksesivli)					5				2	3								4			2
'twais				4							4	5			1	2	3			1	2
'θəːdli							7				4				1					1	
'θɔːtʃli	1							1								2	3			1	2
'θruː		2						1		3			6	7			3				2
'θʌrəli	1				5			1	2			5				2	3	4		1	2
'ʌndə('niːθ)		2						1		3			6	7			3				2
ˌʌn'komənli					5				2									4			2
'ʌp		2					7	1		3			6	7	1		3				2
'ʌp'steəz		2						1		3		5	6				3				2
'ʌtəli					5				2			5						4			2
'veri					5				2			5						4			2
'waizli	1							1								2	3			1	2
'wel					5			1				5				2	3				2
'wilfli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
'wiliŋli	1					6		1			4	5				2	3			1	2
'wiːkli (weakly)	1							1									3			1	2
'wiːkli (weekly)				4							4	5					3				2
'wɔːmli	1							1				5				2	3			1	2
'wʌndəfli	1				5			1	2			5					3	4			2
'wʌns				4							4	5			1	2	3			1	2

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263 Adverbials. The following is a selection of adverb phrases consisting of two or more words, tabulated in the same way as the adverbs.

	A Meaning							A Function							C Position					D Use	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	1	2
'bai ən 'bai			3								4	5			1		3				2
bai 'nau			3								4				1		3				2
'dʒʌst 'ðen			3								4				1		3				2
'dʒʌst 'nau			3								4	5			1		3				2
'dʒʌst 'sou	1						7					5	6				3				2
'evri 'dei				4							4	5					3				2
'evri ʌðə 'dei				4							4	5			1		3				2
ə 'litl					5			1	2			5					3	4			2
ə 'litl 'tuː					5				2									4			2
ə 'loŋ 'wei		2					7	1					6				3				2
ən'til 'ðen			3								4				1		3				2
ə 'ʃoːt 'wei		2						1					6				3				2
ət 'ðat 'taim			3								4				1		3				2
ət 'fəːst			3								4				1		3			1	2
ət 'laːst			3								4	5			1	2	3			1	2
ət 'liːst					5		7			3	4				1	2	3	4	5	1	
ət 'oːl				4	5	6			2	3	4						3	4		1	2
ət 'prezn̩t			3								4				1		3				2
ət 'wʌns			3								4					2	3		5	1	2
əv 'koːs						6					4	5			1				5	1	
əz 'wel							7				4						3				2
'faː 'tuː					5				2	3								4			
'faː 'moː*					5			1	2	3							3	4			2
'feəli 'wel	1							1				5				2	3				2
'haːdli 'evə*				4				1			4	5			2					1	
in 'fjuːtʃə*			3								4				1		3				2
'insaid 'aut		2						1		3	4		6				3				2
'leitər 'on			3								4	5			1		3				2
'niəli 'oːlwiz				4							4	5				2		4		1	2
'nou 'daut						6					4	5			1	2			5	1	
'oːl ət 'wʌns	1							1			4				1		3				2

	A Meaning							B Function							C Position					D Use	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	1	2
'sʌm ,dei			3								4	5			1		3				2
'skeəsli ˇevə*				4							4	5				2		4		1	2
'slaitli ˇtuː					5				2									4			2
ˇsou ,faː*		2	3				7	1			4	5		7	1	2	3				2
sou ˇmʌtʃ					5			1								2	3				2
sou ˇveri					5				2									4			2
'suːn ˇaːftə*			3								4	5					3				2
'suːnər oː ˇleitə*			3								4	5			1		3				2
'tuː ˇfaː*		2			5		7			3	4		6				3				2
'tuː ˇmʌtʃ					5					3			6				3		5		2
'tuː ˇofn̩				4							4						3				2
'twais ə ˇdei (etc.)				4							4	5			1		3				2
'θriː ˇtaimz				4							4	5					3				2
'θriː ˇtaimz ə ˇdei				4							4	5			1		3				2
'ʌpsaid ˇdaun		2						1		3		5	6				3				2
'ʌp tə ˇnau			3								4	5			1		3				2
ˇveri ,wel						6						5							5		2
'veri ˇwel	1				5			1				5	6				3				2
'wʌn ˇdei			3								4	5					3	4			2
'wʌns ə ˇdei (etc.)				4							4	5			1		3				2

MEANING

264   **Grouping by meaning.** From the point of view of their meaning, adverbs may be roughly grouped into classes according as they may constitute answers to various questions such as those shown in the respective sections below. It must, however, be realized that any such classification must be arbitrary, for the classes shade into one another, and a very large number of adverbs may be used with two or more meanings, according to context and word order.

A convenient scheme of classification is to divide adverbs into seven groups according to their intrinsic meanings:

Adverbs

The figures in brackets after each class show the total number of one-word adverbs listed in §262 as funcioning in that capacity.

265 Adverbs of manner (AI). Adverbs belonging to this, the largest group in the list, may serve as answers to questions beginning with hau, e.g., 'hau did ju ˋduː it? 'hau ə ðei ˋtriːtiŋ ju? They usually modify either verbs or sentences, and the position they occupy varies from C1 (before the subject) to C2 (between the finite and the verbal) or C3 (after the object). Some of them are restricted to one of these positions but many may be found in more than one. Examples:

'sʌdn̩li it əd ˙disəˋpiəd   'onistli ai 'dount ˋnou.
it əd 'sʌdn̩li ˙disəˋpiəd.   hi 'spouk ðə ˙wəːdz ˌkwaiətli.
it əd 'disə˙piəd ˌsʌdn̩li.   'aːnt ðei di˙livəd ʼkwikli?
'hau dəz i ˌwəːk?—hi 'wəːks ᵛslouli bət ˋstedili.

266 Adverbs of place, direction and distance (A2). Adverbs of place may serve as answers to such questions as ˋweə?, 'weərəˋbauts? The simple adverbs of place merge almost imperceptibly into phrases and clauses. Adverbs of direction, which answer such questions as 'witʃ ˋwei?, are usually adverbial phrases and clauses, and so are adverbs of distance, except for the adverb faː* (which is replaced in affirmative sentences by ə 'loŋ ˋwei). These answer such questions as 'hau ˋfaː? The adverbials and adverbs in this class, which may modify a whole sentence or any part of it, usually occupy position C3 (after the object). Examples:

'weərə˙bauts wil ju ˌbiː?—ai ʃl bi 'ouvə ˋðeə.
'witʃ ˙wei iz ʃi ˋgouiŋ?—ʃi z 'gouiŋ ˋðat ˌwei.
'hau ˙faː did ju ˋwoːk?—wi 'didn̩t ˙woːk veri ᵛfaː.
wen ju 'briŋ mai ʌm˙brelə ˌbak 'put it autˌsaid, in ðə ˌhoːl.

267   Adverbs of time and duration (A3).   Adverbs of time and duration should not be confused with adverbs of frequency (§268), as the two classes occupy different positions in the sentence.

Adverbs of time, which may serve as answers to such questions as ˈwen ?, merge imperceptibly into adverbial phrases and clauses. Adverbs of duration, which may serve as answers to such questions as 'hau ˈloŋ ?, are usually adverbial phrases or clauses, except for the adverb loŋ (which is replaced in affirmative sentences by ə 'loŋ ˈtaim).

The adverbs and adverbials in this class, which may modify a whole sentence or any part of it, usually occupy position C3 (after the object), but are frequently placed in position C1 (before the subject) either for emphasis or in order to avoid an awkward construction when the object is a long one.   Examples:

'wen | ju bi ˈliːviŋ ?—wi ʃl bi 'liːviŋ ˈlʌndən təˈmoru.
ai 'siː wot ju ˈmiːn, ˌnau.   ˈnau ai ˌsiː wot ju ˈmiːn.
'hau ˈloŋ did ðə ˈfilm ˌlaːst ?—it ˌlaːstid 'tuː ˌauəz.

268   Adverbs of frequency and repetition (A4).   These may serve as answers to the questions 'hau ˈofn̩ and 'hau meni ˈtaimz ? respectively.   They usually modify the whole sentence and occupy position C2 (between finite and verbal).   They are generally used as incidental rather than essential components of the sentence and are frequently modified themselves by adverbs of degree, etc. Examples:

'hau ˈofn̩ əz ʃi 'aːskt ju tə ˌtiː ?—ʃi z ˈnevər ˌaːskt mi.
'hau meni ˈtaimz əv ju ˈsiːn im ?—ai v 'siːn im ˈmeni ˌtaimz.
ai v 'haːdli ˈevə ˈspoukən tu im.—ˇai ˈnevə ˌhav.

Adverbial phrases and clauses expressing frequency or repetition usually occupy position C3 (after the object).   For details of word order in position C2 see §282.

269   Adverbs of degree, quantity and precision (A5).   These may serve as answers to such questions as 'hau ˈlaːdʒ iz it ?, dəz i ˌwəːk 'tuː ˌmʌtʃ, oː 'not iˌnʌf ? or 'hau ˌfluəntli dəz i ˌspiːk ? Examples:

'hau ˌlaːdʒ iz it ?—it s ˈveri ˌlaːdʒ.
hi ˈwəːks tuː ˌmʌtʃ.   hi 'dʌznt ˈwəːk iˈnʌf.

ðei ə ˌrɑːðə ˈgud.   it ˈizn̩t ˈwait iˌnʌf.

it s ˈounli ə ˌboi.   ai pəˇtikjuləli ˈwontid tə ˈsiː ju.

270 Adverbs of affirmation, probability and negation (A6).
This class includes all adverbs equivalent to jes, pəhaps and nou.
They are frequently used as sentences in themselves, but when
they are used in contexts their grammatical functions and position
are very varied.   Certain adverbs marking prominence may con-
veniently be included in this class, typical ones being tʃiːfli, ispeʃli
and noutəbli.   Examples:

'praps ju | ˈsiː im.   ai ˈsəːtn̩li ˌdidn̩t ˌteik it ˌðen.

it s ˇobviəsli imˈposibl̩.   ai ˈnevə sed ˈeniθiŋ əv ðə ˌkaind !

əv ˈkoːs ai ˌtould im sou.   ˈjes, it wəz in ˈparis, ˈnot in ˌlʌndən.

271 Miscellaneous adverbs (A7). It is possible to define and
classify other and minor categories of adverbs, such as *ordinals*
(sekəndli), adverbs of *concession* (stil), of *consequence* (sou), etc.,
but it will probably be more convenient to gather them together
under the above heading.   Examples:

'fəːstli wi ˈhav tə kənˈsidə ði iksˌpens ; 'sekəndli wi məs 'teik
intu əˈkaunt ðə ˌdifikl̩tiz . . . *etc.*

ju ˈmei bi ˌrait, ˈstil, ai 'wudn̩t ˇkaunt on it.

ai 'soː i wəz ˈbizi, sou ai 'keim əˈwei.

GRAMMATICAL FUNCTION

272 Functional limitations.   Under the heading of grammatical
function consideration is given to the way in which adverbs modify
various classes of words (parts of speech, etc.).   It is necessary,
for instance, for the foreign student to know that **veri** may modify
an adjective, but not a verb ; that **deili** may modify a verb, but
not an adjective ; that **pəːfiktli** may modify either verbs or adjectives,
etc.   It is also well for him to know which adverbs may be used
by themselves as sentences.   The group of adverbs used predicatively
(i.e. as complements) and the group of adverbial particles are also
included in this section.

On this basis, we may distinguish the following seven functions,
which, of course, are not mutually exclusive :

B1   Adverbs modifying *verbs* (185).

B2   Adverbs modifying *adjectives* and *adverbs* (84).

B3   Adverbs modifying *nouns* and *determiners* (64).

B4   Adverbs modifying *sentences* (98).

B5   Adverbs that may be *sentences in themselves* (143).

B6   Adverbs *used as complements* (43).

B7   *Adverbial particles* (20).

The figures in brackets after each functional class show the total number of one-word adverbs listed in §262 as performing that function.

273 Adverbs modifying verbs (B1). This is the most usual function of adverbs. Examples:

ðei v 'dʒʌst ə‚raivd.	əm ai 'spiːkiŋ ˙tuː 'kwikli?
ʃi wəz 'woːkiŋ ‵slouli.	joː 'sistə ‵raits ‚wel.
həv ju 'evə ˙siːn im 'akt?	‵ai ʃəd ‚duː it ‵difr̩ntli.

274 Adverbs modifying adjectives and adverbs (B2). The adverbs that modify adjectives or other adverbs are nearly always those of Degree, Affirmation or Manner. Examples:

Modifying adjectives	*Modifying adverbs*
ðat s 'veri ‚gud.	ðei 'spiːk 'kwait ‵difr̩tli.
ʃi z 'aktʃuəli ‵redi!	hi ‚did it 'riəli ‚wel.
˅ðiːz ə ‵fraitfl̩i ‚bad.	wi 'keim 'speʃl̩i ‚əːli.
ðei ə 'pəːfiktli ‚lʌvli!	ðei ə'raivd ˙dʒʌst ‚enihau.
ʃi z ə˅keiʒŋl̩i fə‵getfl̩.	it s ik'siːdiŋli ˙wel ‚dʌn.
ai wəz in‵tenʃn̩l̩i ‚kəːt.	wi ˅faund it 'feəli ‵iːzili.

For adverbs requiring a special word order when modifying adjectives or adverbs see §284.

275 Adverbs modifying nouns and determiners (B3). In most cases when an adverb modifies a noun, an article (usually the indefinite one) is inserted between the two. Examples:

hi z 'kwait ə ‵man, ‚nau.	it ‵siːmz tə bi ‚kwait ə ‵baːgin.
ʃi z 'miəli ə bi‵ginə.	it s 'iːvn̩ ðə ‵best ‚wei tə ‚duː it.
it wəz ‵ounli ə ˅piktʃə.	it wəz ‵ounli ðə ‚milkmən.

When the word modified is a determiner the article is generally not used:

iz it 'riəli ⸜main?	**ðər ə 'beəli ə ˌdʌzn̩.**
it s ⸜ounli ˌmiː.	**ðə z 'iːvn̩ ⸜plenti.**

Other examples of adverbs modifying nouns and determiners will be found in §59*f* and §67.

276 Adverbs modifying sentences (B4). When it modifies a complete sentence the adverb is usually placed at the beginning. Examples:

⸜ʃuəli hi ˌiznt ˅il!	**'aiðə ju ⸜duː ˌlaik it, oː ju ⸜dount.**
pə⸜haps ju ə ˌrait.	**˅posibli i 'haznt ri⸜siːvd ðəm.**
⸜stil, ju ⸜mait ˌ⸜trai!	**in⸜diːd, ai 'didn̩t ⸜nou i wəz ˌðeə.**

Many would classify these as conjunctions.

277 Adverbs that may be sentences themselves (B5). These adverbs fall into two classes:

a. Those that are frequently used in conversation as reactions to or comments upon a situation or a remark, or as imperatives or exclamations. Examples:

'aut⸜said!	**⸜bak!**	**⸜daun!**	**di⸜saididli.**	**˅faːstə!**
ig⸜zaktli.	**⸜hiə!**	**˅lʌkili.**	**ˌnekst.**	**⸜riəli!**

b. Those used as a self-contained answer to a question. Most of the adverbs of manner are among these, e.g., **'hau did i biˌheiv?** —**pə˅laitli.** Examples of other possible answers to questions:

⸜gladli.	**˅haːdli.**	**⸜jes.**	**kəm⸜pliːtli.**	**˅moustli.**
⸜nau.	**⸜nevə!**	**ˌnou.**	**˅oːlmoust.**	**⸜səːtn̩li!**

Another view held regarding these adverbs is that they are modifying words in alogistic (or unexpressed) sentences that can be supplied only from the context, since, if they were sentences in themselves, they would contain a completed thought apart from any context.

278 Adverbs used as complements (B6). A certain number of adverbs may be used as subject complements, i.e., as complements to the verb **tə biː** and other verbs of incomplete predication. Some of these are almost adjectival in their nature (e.g., **ə⸜freid, ə⸜laiv,**

əˈsliːp, əˈweik, əˈweə*).   Others are the adverbs of place and the adverbial particles.   Examples:

> hi z əˈbrɔːd.   ˈðiːz ˈtuː ˈθiŋz ər əˈlaik.
> it s ˈhiə.   hi ˈmʌst bi ˈaut.

Most of these may be used also as object complements.   Examples:

> ˈput on jɔː ˌhat.   *or*   ˈput jɔː ˌhat on.
> hi ˈtuk ər əˈbrɔːd.   ˈpul ðə ˌkɔːk aut.

279   Adverbial particles (B7).   These correspond to the "separable particles" of other Germanic languages.   The most used ones are:

aut	daun	əloŋ	in	ouvə*	θruː
bak	əbaut	əraund	of	paːst	ʌnðə*
bai	əkros	əwei	on	raund	ʌp

There is considerable similarity in form and meaning between these adverbs and certain simple and compound prepositions of place:

> hi ˈkeim ˌaut.   hi ˈkeim ˈaut əv ðə ˌhaus.
> hi ˈkeim ˌbak.   hi ˈkeim ˈbak tə ˌlʌndən.
> hi wəz ˈwɔːkiŋ əˌloŋ.   hi wəz ˈwɔːkiŋ əˈloŋ ðə ˌroud.
> hi ˈwent əˌwei.   hi ˈwent əˈwei frəm ˌlʌndən.
> hi ˈwɔːkt ˌin.   hi ˈwɔːkt intə ðə ˌhaus.
> it ˈfel ˌof.   it ˈfel ˈof ðə ˌteibļ.

In addition to one or more fairly stable and specific meanings, many of these adverbs (notably aut, daun, əwei, of, on, ʌp) express ideas that are difficult to define.

In some cases they reinforce the idea expressed by the verb:

> ˈstand ˈʌp   ˈlai ˈdaun   ˈtəːn ˈraund   ˈskriːm ˈaut

In other cases while they express a distinct and independent idea the meaning of the compound is perfectly clear to anyone who understands the general meaning of the individual words:

> ˈkʌm ˈaut   ˈbriŋ ˈbak   ˈteik əˈwei   ˈgou ˈin

In many other cases they combine with a verb to form a compound with a purely arbitrary meaning that cannot easily be deduced from that of the individual words.   These combinations may be regarded

as compound verbs, which the student would do well to learn as integral wholes, as he does such compounds as fəget, ouvəteik, ʌndəstand, ʌndəteik, ʌpset and wiðdrɔː.

While the meanings of such compounds are to be looked for in the dictionary rather than the grammar, a few representative samples are explained below.

ˈfɔːl ˈaut (= kworl)	ˈblou ˈʌp (= disˈtroi bai iksˈplouʒŋ)
ˈpik ˈaut (= tʃuːz)	ˈbotl ˈʌp (= iŋˈklouz az in ə ˈbotl)
ˈgiv ˈin (= jiːld)	ˈbrik ˈʌp (= ˈʃʌt in wið briks)
ˈliːv ˈof (= stop)	ˈgiv ˈʌp (= əˈbandən əˈtempts)

The position in the sentence of the adverbial particle varies with the structure of the sentence.

When the sentence contains no direct object the particle is placed immediately after the verb:

ju kən ˈɔːlwiz ˌkʌm ˌbak.	ðei ˈtould mi tə ˈgou əˌwei.
hi ˈwent ˈin ət ˌwʌns.	did ju ˈsiː ðəm ˈraid ˈpaːst?

When the sentence contains a direct object in the form of a personal pronoun (or most of the other types of determiners) the particle is placed immediately after the pronoun or determiner:

ˈput it ˌaut.	ai ʃl ˈaːsk im ˌin.
ˈteik ˈðat ˌof.	ju məst ˈsend ˈðiːz ˌbak.

When the sentence contains a direct object other than those in the above classes the particle may be placed immediately after the verb:

ˈteik ˈof jɔː ˌhat.	ju v ˈput ˈon jɔː ˈbest ˌʃuːz.
ˈput əˈwei ˈðouz ˌbuks.	ai l ˈbriŋ ˈdaun ə ˈfjuː ˌtʃeəz.

Alternatively, and especially in natural and familiar speech, the particle may be placed after the object:

ˈteik jɔː ˌhat ˌof.	ju v ˈput jɔː ˈbest ˌʃuːz ˌon.
ˈput ði ˌʌðə wʌn ˌθruː.	ai ʃl ˈaːsk mai ˌfrend ˌouvə.

In exclamatory statements (as used in lively narrative) and in exclamatory imperatives (usually of a slightly jocular or familiar nature) the particle is placed at the beginning of the sentence and is pronounced with a high level or falling tone. If the subject is a personal pronoun it follows the particle and precedes the verb,

which takes a low rising tone.   If the subject is not a pronoun it
follows the verb and takes a low rising tone.   Examples:

Adverb + Subject + Verb	*Adverb + Verb + Subject*
ˋin ðei ˎwent !	'in ˙went ði ˎʌðəz !
ˋof it ˎkeim !	'of ˙keim ðə ˎwiːl !
ə'wei hi ˎfluː !	ə'wei ˙fluː ðə ˎboi!
'daun ju ˎgou !	'daun ˙fel ðə ˎbot‖ !
'aut ju ˎkʌm !	'aut ˙went ðə ˎlait !

Note in this connection such elliptical expressions as:

      ˋof wið iz ˎhed !   ˋdaun wið it !

In some cases the adverbial particles may be compounded with
hiə* or ðeə*.

'in ˋhiə*	'in ˋðeə*	ə'loŋ ˋhiə*	ə'loŋ ˋðeə*
'aut ˋhiə*	'aut ˋðeə*	ə'kros ˋhiə*	ə'kros ˋðeə*
'bak ˋhiə*	'bak ˋðeə*	'θruː ˋhiə*	'θruː ˋðeə*
'daun ˋhiə*	'daun ˋðeə*	'ouvə ˋhiə*	'ouvə ˋðeə*
'ʌp ˋhiə*	'ʌp ˋðeə*	'raund ˋhiə*	'raund ˋðeə*

All the adverbial particles except əbaut and əraund may be
modified by rait (which acts as an intensifier suggesting the idea
of "extremity") and by dʒʌst or ounli dʒʌst (meaning "so far
and not more"):

      it s 'rait ˎin (əz 'faːr əz it ‖ ˎgou).
      ai ˎpuʃt it 'rait ˎdaun (tə ðə 'louist ˎpoint).
      it s 'rait ouvə ˎðeə (əz 'faːr əz ju kən ˎsiː).
      it s 'ounli ˙dʒʌst ˎin (it ˋmait ˎgou 'stil ˋfaːðə).
      ju ‖ ˎsiː it 'dʒʌst ʌp ˎðeə (ˋnot veri ˎfaːr ʌp).
      hi ˎlivz 'dʒʌst raund ˎhiə ('kwait ˎklous).

POSITION

280   Analysis of adverb positions.   The positions occupied in
the sentence by adverbs may be roughly divided into the following
five classes:

      C1   *Before the subject* (91).
      C2   *Between finite and verbal* (141).
      C3   *After the object* (202).
      C4   *Before an adjective* (99).
      C5   *Miscellaneous* (36).

The figures in brackets after each class show the total number of one-word adverbs listed in §262 as occupying that position.

Some of the terms employed above to identify the five positions are generalizations and cover certain variations which, though minor in position, are important in syntax. These variations are described below.

281   Before the subject (C1).   Two possible orders are included under this heading.   In the first one the adverb begins a normal sentence:

ə‿ridʒinḷi ai inˈtendid tə ˙gou ə‵brɔːd ðis ˌsʌmə.
‿jestədi wi ˙went tə ðə ˈsiː‵said.

In the second case, which occurs chiefly with adverbs having a negative or near negative connotation, the adverb begins the sentence and is followed by an inverted finite and subject.   In tenses A1 and A2 the conjugating finite duː, dʌz or did is introduced in affirmative statements.   (See also §357.)

ˈnouweə kən ju ˙faind ˈbetə ˙kukiŋ ðən in ‵frɑːns.
ˈhaːdli ‵evə həv ai ˌsiːn sʌtʃ əˈpɔːliŋ ˌweist.
ˈwel du ai riˈmembə ‵miːtiŋ him.

282   Between finite and verbal (C2).   This heading covers several variants in word order, which depend upon the structural composition of the tense and the incidence of the stress, as shown below.

a.   If the tense consists of a specific finite only (i.e., tenses A1 and A2 in their affirmative form only) the adverb is placed between the subject and the specific finite:

hi ˈɔːlwiz əˈraivz ˌleit.   ai ˈfuːliʃli ˙weitid ˈtuː ˌlɔŋ.

b.   If the tense consists of a conjugating finite followed by a specific verbal, the adverb is placed between the finite and the verbal, though probəbli and sɔːtṇli precede negative finites:

dəz i ˈevər əˈraiv ‵leit?   ai ʃḷ ˈnevə fəˈget ‿ðat.
wi wə ˈjuːʒuəli əˈlaud ‵moə.   ʃi z ‵ɔːlwiz ˌteliŋ ˌlaiz.
ju v ˈprobəbli ‵siːn it.   ju ˈprobəbli ˈhavṇt ˌsiːn it.
ai ʃḷ ‵sɔːtṇli ˌweit.   ai ‵sɔːtṇli ˌʃaːnt ˌweit.

c. If the tense consists of a conjugating finite, one or two conjugating verbals and a specific verbal, the adverb is placed between the finite and the first verbal if it is modifying the whole sentence:

it s ˋofn̩ bin sə‚plaid ˋfriː.   ai ʃl ˋoːlwiz bi ˌθiŋkiŋ əv ˏjuː.
it kəd ˋnevər əv bin ˏmendid. ʃi z ˋnevə bin ˙lukiŋ sou ˏwel.

d. If the conjugating finite used in structure *c* above is stressed, or if it stands by itself as representing a specific verb or a complement (as in some tags), the adverb is placed before the finite:

ai 'nevə ˋkud ʌndə‚stand joːr ˌatitjuːd.
'onisti z ðə ˙best ˇpolisi.—it 'oːlwiz ˋwoz. (it ˋoːlwiz iz).

e. When the adverb in these multi-verbal tenses modifies the specific verb rather than the whole sentence, which occurs most frequently in the passive voice and with adverbs of manner, it is usually placed immediately before the specific verbal:

hi l bi 'dʒʌst əˋraiviŋ ˏnau.   ai wəz biːiŋ 'slouli ˏsʌfəkeitid.
ðei d əv bin 'waizli ˌjuːzd.   it l əv bin 'speʃli ˌmeid fə ju.

These changes in adverb position, sometimes aided by a change in the intonation, may modify the meaning of the sentence. Notice the difference between:

it ʃəd ˇriəli əv bin ˋkukt ;   *and*   it ʃəd əv bin 'riəli ˌkukt.

It is worth noting that the determiners bouθ and oːl, when used in the collocations shown in the first column of the list given in §96, follow the same rule of position as the adverbs of frequency, thus:

a. wi 'bouθ əˋraivd ˌleit.   *c.* ju v ˋoːl bin ˌgivn̩ wʌn.
b. ðei wər 'oːl əˋlaud ˌmoə.   *d.* 'hau meni əv ju ˌsoː mi ?— wi ˋoːl did.

283   After the object (C3). If the verb is an intransitive one there is of course no object and the adverb is placed immediately after the specific verb:

hi z 'gon əˋbroːd.   ʃi 'smaild ˌhapili.

If the verb is followed by a prepositional object the position of the adverb usually depends on the logic of the case:

hi z 'gon əˋbroːd wið ðəm.   ai l 'plei wið ˋjuː ˌnekst.
ʃi 'smaild ət im ˌhapili.   *or* ʃi 'smaild ˋhapili ˌat im.
wi v 'lukt fər it ˋevriweə. *or* wi v 'lukt ˋevriweə ˌfoːr it.

If the verb is a transitive one the adverb is placed after, and *not* before the object:

hi 'spiːks ˈiŋgliʃ ˎwel.   ʃi 'pʌniʃt ðə ˈtʃaild siˋviəli.
hi 'dʌz iz ˈwəːk ˋkeəfli.   ju v 'ritn̩ ðis ˈletə 'veri ˎwel.

There are cases in which an adverb may separate a verb from its object, but they are not common in spoken English and should be resorted to only by students who understand the reason for this departure from the usual practice, as the insertion of adverbs between a verb and its object is one of the most characteristic mistakes made by foreigners in English.   (See also §372.)

a. The adverbs or adverbials that normally occupy this position are those of Manner, Place and Time, and if more than one of these classes is present in the same sentence they are usually placed in the above order:

hi 'spouk ˋbriljəntli ət ðə ˏmiːtiŋ ˈlaːst ˈnait.
wi 'wʌn ˋiːzili in ðə ˏbout reis on ˈsatədi.

b. If more than one adverb of either Place or Time is used, the more particular precedes the more general:

ai m 'liːviŋ ˈəːli təˎmoru.   hi z in ðə 'litl ˈruːm ʌpˎsteəz.

c. When used with specific verbs expressing movement, adverbs and adverbials of place take precedence over adverbs of manner:

ju l 'get ðeər ˈiːziər ən ˇkwikə bai ˋtrein.
ðei l ə'raiv hiər ˋeniwei in ˏtaim fə ˇlʌntʃ.

d. In the passive tenses, adverbs of manner nearly always precede the specific verbal; especially if this has a partly adjectival function.

ðə 'buks əv bin kən'viːnjəntli əˈreindʒd bai ˋsʌbdʒikts.
'ðiːz ˈtoiz 'mʌst əv bin 'veri ˈtʃiːpli prəˇdjuːst.

e. If an adverb and an adverbial of manner occur in the same sentence the former precedes the latter, and they are generally connected by a co-ordinating conjunction.

ai ʃl 'spiːk tə ðəm ˇkliəli ənd in 'nou ʌnˈsəːtn̩ ˎtəːmz.
hi 'dʌz iz 'wəːk ˇkwikli bət wið 'greit ˎkeə.

284 Before an adjective (C4). This position is occupied by
adverbs modifying the adjective, and those modifying another
adverb also precede the word modified. Examples:

    hi wəz 'kwait sə‵praizd.   ju ə 'woːkiŋ 'tuː ‵faːst fə ˌmiː.
    ju ər 'absəluːtli ˎrait.   ʃi 'tuk it ‵feəli ˌkaːmli.

Important exceptions to the above rule are the adverbs **els**, **indiːd**
and **inʌf**, which nearly always follow the word they qualify.

els forms adverbial collocations with the adverbs **sʌmweə***,
eniweə*, **nouweə***, **evriweə***, and less frequently with **sʌmhau**
and **enihau**.

    it 'izn̩t ˇhiə, it 'mʌst bi ˙sʌmweər ‵els.
    ðə z 'nouweər ˙els ðət wi kən ‵gou.
    wi ʃl 'hav tə ˙sit ‵hiə, 'evriweər ˙els is ‵ful.

indiːd is generally used to reinforce the adverb of degree **veri**
when it is modifying another adverb or an adjective. In this case
the word being modified is preceded by **veri** and followed by **indiːd**.

    it s 'veri ˙nais inˎdiːd.   hi ˌspouk 'veri ˙wel inˎdiːd.

inʌf is often associated with **kwait**, **niəli**, or a negative adverb
or finite.

    ‵ðis iz ˌgud inʌf fə ˌmiː.   ʃi z ‵kwait ˌwel inʌf tə ˌgou.
    'ðat s not ‵niəli ˌgud inʌf.   ðei 'aːnt ˙wəːkiŋ ‵faːst inʌf.

285 Miscellaneous positions (C5). As will be seen from the
list in §262, quite a number of adverbs may occupy various positions
in the sentence. In some cases the choice of position depends on
the meaning in which the adverb is being used or on the part of
speech which it is modifying. The following examples illustrate
this point:

    ‵natʃrəli ai ˌwont tə ˌspiːk.   ‵stil, ju 'mait əv ˇweitid.
    ai ‵natʃrəli ˌwont tə ˌspiːk.   ju 'stil mait əv ˇweitid.
    ai ‵wont tə ˌspiːk, ‵natʃrəli.   ju mait 'stil əv ˇweitid.
    ai 'wont tə ˙spiːk ˎnatʃrəli.   ju ‵mait əv ˌweitid 'stil ‵loŋgə.

The tendency in modern spoken English is to prefer position C2
(between finite and verbal) for adverbs which may occupy various
positions, the typical case being that of **ounli**. If it modifies the
subject this adverb takes position C1 (before the subject), but in

other cases it most frequently takes position C2, the word it modifies
being identified by placing the nuclear tone upon it (§40). Examples:

'ounli ðə ˋmen əv bin ˌaːskt tə ˌsain ðə piˌtiʃn̩. (not ðə ˅wimin).
ðə 'men əv ˙ounli bin ˋaːskt tə ˌsain ðə piˌtiʃn̩. (not ˅oːdəd).
ðə 'men əv 'ounli bin ˙aːskt tə ˋsain ðə piˌtiʃn̩. (not ˅rait it).
ðə 'men əv 'ounli bin ˙aːskt tə 'sain ðə pi˅tiʃn̩. (not ðə di˅maːnd).
həz 'ounli ′joː ˙waif ˙siːn ðə ˙plei ? (not joː ′brʌðəz ˙waif ?).
həz 'ounli joː ′waif ˙siːn ðə ˙plei ? (not joː ′doːtə ?).
həz joː 'waif ˙ounli ′siːn ðə ˙plei ? (not ′red it ?).
həz joː 'waif 'ounli ˙siːn ðə ′plei ? (not ðə ′film ?).

In the written language it is preferable, and more usual, to place
ounli immediately before the word it modifies, since in writing there
is normally no indication of where the nuclear tone is intended
to fall.

<div align="center">USE</div>

286 Classification by function.   Under this heading adverbs
may be divided into two groups according to their footing in the
sentence and the two ways in which they perform their modifying
function.   These are:

D1   Epithets, or *incidental components* of sentences (161).

D2   Complements, or *essential components* of sentences (214).

The figures in brackets after each class show the total number
of one-word adverbs listed in §262 as having that footing.
The following examples will help to show the difference between
these two uses of adverbs.

Incidental components	*Essential components*
wi wə 'kwaiətli ˙gouiŋ əˌwei.	wi wə 'gouiŋ ə˙wei ˌkwaiətli.
ai i'miːdjətli kəˌrektid it.	ai kə'rektid it iˌmiːdjətli.
hi l 'simpli ˙rait ðə ˌletə.	hi l 'rait ðə ˙letə ˌsimpli.
ðei 'onistli ˙wont tə ˌwəːk.	ðei 'wont tə ˙wəːk ˌonistli.
ʃi ˋnatʃrəli ˌred ðə ˌletə.	ʃi 'red ðə ˙letə ˌnatʃrəli.
ʃi 'regjuləli inˌdʒoid əself.	ʃi in'dʒoid əself ˌregjuləli.

The distinction between these two classes is a most useful one,
and should be thoroughly grasped by the foreign student, if only

to help him in determining the position of adverbs in the sentence.

Many adverbs can be used only as incidental components, others can be used only as essential components, and others again may be used in both manners, though they generally vary considerably in meaning according as they are used in one way or the other.

287 Incidental components. When they are used as incidental components adverbs have a casual, almost parenthetical, footing in the sentence.   In most cases they may be added or omitted without changing the meaning of the modified word or sentence in any appreciable degree, but they usually add intensity to the sentence, and for this reason are sometimes felt to suggest dramatic or emotional speech.   When they function in this way they are rarely of sufficient semantic prominence to require a nuclear tone, though in cases of special emphasis they may do so.   They occupy positions C1 or C2, the latter being the more frequent.   Examples:

C1 *Before the subject*	C2 *Between finite and verbal*
ˈsəːtn̩li hi l ˌkʌm.	hi l ˈsəːtn̩li ˌkʌm.
'dʒʌst ˈweit til ai ˈkatʃ ju !	wi 'miəli ˈwont tə ˈnou.
ˇaktʃuəli, ðei 'left ˈjestədi.	ai 'kwikli ˈlokt ðə ˌdoə.
diˈsaididli ju məs ˌkʌm əˌgein.	ðei wə 'kliəli ˈment fə ˈmiː.
'hapili wi v 'nevə ˈfeild ˇjet.	ai əˈkoːdiŋli ˈkeim tə ˈsiː ju.

288 Essential components. When adverbs have a footing as essential components of the sentence they state explicitly and prominently in what manner or degree the action is performed. They are often adverbial complements and differ little from prepositional phrases used as adverbs.   They are felt to be an integral part of the sentence, and are usually of sufficient importance to take the nuclear tone.   Sentences change appreciably in meaning according as such adverbs are included or omitted.   These adverbs generally occupy position C3.   Examples:

hi wəz 'wəːkiŋ ˈveri ˌpeiʃn̩tli.   ʃi ri'fəːd tə ju ˈindiˇrektli.
ʃi 'kʌmz tə ˈsiː mi ˇsʌmtaimz.   hi ˌdid it 'slouli ən ˌkeəfl̩i.
ðə 'wil wəz ˈwəːdid iks'triːmli ˈkliəli ən priˌsaisli.
hi 'spiːks ˈiŋgliʃ ˌwel, ən prə'naunsiz ˈveri kəˌrektli.
ˈsʌm piːpl̩ ˌduː ðəm ˈiːzili ; ˇʌðəz ˌduː ðəm wið ˈdifikl̩ti.

Note that the opposite of the adverb iːzili is the prepositional phrase wið difikl̩ti, as shown in the last example above.

F.   Prepositions

289   Form and meaning.   Formally, prepositions may be

Simple prepositions, consisting of a single word, or
Group prepositions, consisting of more than one word.

Semantically, both simple and group prepositions fall into various classes, as shown in the following lists, in which those marked † may take the end-position in the circumstances described in §294.

In these lists simple prepositions are given their strong forms, with their weak forms in parentheses, while group prepositions are shown with the stresses and weak forms that would characterize them in normal use.

Place, movement and direction.

†at (ət)	†biˋtwiːn	†from (frəm)	†raund
ˈautˋsaid	†daun	†in	†təˋwoːdz
†bai	†əˋbaut	ˈinˋsaid	†tuː (tu, tə)
biˋfoə*	†əˋbʌv	†ˋintu (intə)	†θruː
†biˋhaind	†əˋkros	†niə*	θruˋaut
biˋjond	†əˋgeinst	†of	†ˋʌndə*
biˋlou	†əˋloŋ	†on	ˈʌndəˋniːθ
biˋniːθ	†əˋmʌŋ	†ˋouvə*	†ʌp

†ˋaut əv	†ət ðə ˋkoːnər əv	†ˋklous tə
ˈautˋsaid əv	†ət ðə ˋsaid əv	†ˋʌp tə
†bai ðə ˋsaid əv	†in ˋfrʌnt əv	†əˋwei frəm
†ət ðə ˋbak əv	†in ðə ˋmidl̩ əv	†ə ˋloŋ ˋwei frəm
†ət ðə biˋginiŋ əv	†on ˋtop əv	†ˋfaː frəm
†ət ðə ˋbotəm əv	†ˋbak tə	†ˈfaːr əˋwei frəm
†ət ði ˋend əv	†ˋdaun tə	əz ˋfaːr əz

Time and duration.

†at (ət)	ˋdjuəriŋ	†in	θruː
†ˋaːftə*	əˋbaut	†on	θruˋaut
†bai	ənˋtil	sins	
biˋfoə*	†foː* (fə*)	til	
biˋtwiːn	†from (frəm)	tuː (tu, tə)	
†ət ðə biˋginiŋ əv	ət ðə ˋtaim əv	ˋdaun tə	
†ət ði ˋend əv	†in ðə ˋmidl̩ əv	ˋʌp tə	

Relationship.

ˋaz fə*	əˋkɔːdiŋ tə	†wið ˋrefrn̩s tə
ˋaz tə	kənˋsəːniŋ	wið riˋgaːd tə
†əˋbaut	riˋgaːdiŋ	wið risˋpekt tə

Motive, cause and agency.

on əˋkaunt əv	biˋkoz əv	bai ˋmiːnz əv
fə ðə ˋseik əv	ˋouiŋ tə	in ˋspait əv

Addition.

biˋsaidz	†in əˋdiʃn̩ tə	təˋgeðə wið

Reservation.

bʌt (bət)	ˋbʌt fə*	ikˋsept	ikˋseptiŋ

Miscellaneous.

†foː* (fə*)	†laik	†ov (əv)	†wið	†wiðˋaut

290   Function.   Both simple and group prepositions are followed by a noun or determiner, which it is their function to relate to some other word or to the rest of the sentence.   This noun or determiner that follows the preposition is said to be its "object," and when this object is one of the five personal pronouns that have a special form for the oblique case (§68), this form is used.   The preposition and its object constitute a "prepositional phrase," and this may be used either adjectivally, to qualify nouns or determiners, or adverbially, to modify verbs or sentences.

These two uses of prepositional phrases are exemplified in the next two sections.   It should be understood that the vertical lines inserted in the examples have no other function than to indicate where the prepositional phrase begins or ends.

291   Adverbial phrases.   In modifying verbs or sentences these phrases have the various semantic functions shown in §289, and examples of each are given below.   Adverbial phrases may be placed at either the beginning or the end of the sentence, though the latter is far more frequent, and essential in many cases.

Place, movement and direction.

ʃi ˈlivz │ bai ðə ˎrivə.   hi ˈwɔːkt │ əˈkros ðə ˎruːm.

ˈput it │ on ðə ˎteibl̩.   ai m ˈgouiŋ │ tə ðə ˎsteiʃn̩.

ðei ˈliv │ ət ðə ˈbotəm əv ðə ˎhil.

ðər ə səm ˈtriːz │ in ˌfrʌnt əv ðə ˎhaus.

ˈput ˈðis ˈbuk │ on ˈtop əv ði ˎʌðəz.

ai m əˈfreid wi ə ˈstil │ ə ˈloŋ ˈwei frəm ˈhoum.

Time and duration.

ˈkʌm │ ət ˈhaːf paːst ˎtuː.   ai l ˈsiː ju │ ˈaːftə ˎskuːl.

wi ʃl̩ bi ˈbak │ in səpˌtembə.   ai ˈsoː im │ djuəriŋ ðə ˎholidiz.

hi wəz ˈhiə │ fər ən ˈauə.   ju v bin ˈaidl̩ │ θruˈaut ðə ˎdei

ˈʌp tə ðə ˈpreznt̩ │ ðei v dʌn ˈnʌθiŋ abaut it.

wi ʃl̩ ˈmiːt əˈgein │ ət ði ˈend əv ðə ˎjiə.

ai m ˈstaːtiŋ mai ˈholidiz │ in ðə ˈmidl̩ əv ˎɔːgəst.

Relationship.

iŋˈkwaiər │ ˈaz tu iz ˈkwolifiˈkeiʃn̩z fə ðə ˌdʒob.

ˈwitʃ ˈaksidn̩t │ ə ju ˈtɔːkiŋ │ əbaut?

əˈkɔːdiŋ tə ðə ˈtaimteibl̩ │ wi ˈɔːt tə bi əˈraiviŋ ˌsuːn.

ai v ˈritn̩ tə ðəm │ wið ˌrefrn̩s tə ðə ˌkontrakt.

Motive, cause and agency.

ˈwai dount ju ˈduː it │ fə ðə ˈseik əv ði ˎʌðəz?

ˈouiŋ tə ðə ˈbad ˌweðə │ ðə ˈgaːdn̩ ˈpaːti wəz ˎkansl̩d.

in ˈspait əv ˌwot ai ˌsed │ hi kənˈtinjud tə ˎwʌri mi.

Addition.

ðə wə ˈθriː ˈʌðə piːpl̩ ˌðeə │ biˌsaidz maiˌself.

ˈðiːz ˈteligramz │ təˈgeðə wið ðə ˈpriːviəs ˌletəz │ ˈsetl̩ ðə ˌmatə.

Reservation.

ˈbʌt fə ˈjoː misˌteik │ wi ʃəd əv bin ˈðeə bai ˌnau.

ˈevribodi ˌsoː it │ ikˌsept ˌmiː.

Miscellaneous.

ə ˈpen z ˈjuːzd │ fə ˎraitiŋ.   ˈwai dount ju ˈspiːk │ fə jəˈself?

ˈwot ʃl ai ˈduː │ wið it?   hi ˈwəːks │ laik ə ˈtroudʒn̩.

wi ʃl̩ ˈgou │ wiðˈaut ju.   həv ju ˈgot ˈrid │ əv joː ˈkould?

292 Adjectival phrases. In qualifying nouns or determiners these phrases are frequently used for the purpose of identifying a person or thing when no suitable adjective is available. They are shorter than the relative clauses that might perform the same function, and more elegant than *ad hoc* adjectives that might be formed to replace them, thus:

Adjective: ðə 'griːn-dʒʌmpə-klad ˌwumən.

Adjectival Phrase: ðə 'wumən wið ðə ˙griːn ˌdʒʌmpə.

Adjectival Clause: ðə 'wumən hu z ˙weəriŋ ðə 'griːn ˌdʒʌmpə.

Examples of adjectival phrases:

Qualifying determiners	*Qualifying nouns*
'nʌθiŋ | ˙aut əv ði ᵛoːdn̩ri.	ðə 'man | bi˙haind ðə ˌkauntə.
'ðouz | ʌndə˙niːθ ðə ˌpiktʃə.	ðə 'buk | on ðə ˌteibl̩.
ðə 'nekst | bət ˌwʌn.	ðə 'bridʒ | ouvə ðə ˌrivə.
səm 'moə | laik ði ˌʌðəz.	ðə 'noiz | ˙klous tə ðə məˌʃiːnz.
'sʌmbədi | wið ə ˌpaip.	ðə 'kʌlər | əv ðə ˌgraːs.
ðə 'wʌn | wið˙aut ə ˌpatən.	ðə 'kʌp | wið˙aut ə ˌhandl̩.

It will be noticed that adjectival phrases follow the noun or determiner that they qualify. Further examples will be found in §60*d*.

293 Verbal nouns after prepositions. The verbal noun that is used after prepositions is the gerund. Examples:

ðei ə 'not ə˙bʌv 'teikiŋ ˙ʌnfeər əd'vaːntidʒ əv ju.

'kaːnt ju ˙stop im frəm 'meikiŋ ˙oːl ðat ꞌnoiz?

ai 'koːt ðis ˙kould θruː 'gouiŋ ˙aut wið'aut ə ꞌkout.

wi ər in ðə 'midl̩ əv ˙tʃeindʒiŋ ꞌhauziz.

ꞌweit ə ˌwail bi,foː ˌteikiŋ eni ˌakʃn̩.

'az fər əᵛpolədʒaiziŋ, ai 'ʃudn̩t ꞌdriːm əv it.

ꞌdount ˌdʒʌst ˌtoːk fə ðə ˌseik əv ꞌseiiŋ ˌsʌmθiŋ.

bi'saidz ᵛraitiŋ, wi 'sent ə ꞌteligram.

The infinitive particle.

The word **tu** which usually precedes the infinitives of verbs does not perform the functions of a preposition. Its chief use is to point out that the verb form following it is an infinitive and not a finite, and it is therefore best referred to as the Infinitive Particle. It

occurs either alone or in the collocations **sou əz tu** and **in oːdə tu**, which are always followed by an infinitive.   Examples:

ai 'ʌndə`stand ðət ʃi 'gouz ðeə tə `ləːn ˌiŋgliʃ.
wi 'duː it ˅ðis wei sou əz tə 'seiv `taim.
ðei `staːtid ˌəːli in ˙oːdə tə `get ðeər ˌəːli.

The gerund after **tu**.

The preposition **tu** does not usually take a gerund as its object, but a few special cases occur when **tu** is the final element in expressions such as:

tə 'teik ə `laikiŋ tə	tə bi ə`kʌstəmd tə	tə bi `juːst tə
tə 'hav ˙nou əb`dʒekʃn tə	tə bi 'ʌnə`kʌstəmd tə	tə bi `givn̩ tə
tə 'teik ə dis`laik tə	tə bi `prefrəbl̩ tə	tə bi ə`vəːs tə
tu əb`dʒekt tə	tə bi sju`piəriə tə	

həv ju 'eni əb˙dʒekʃn̩ tə mai ´boruiŋ ˙ðis ˙buk?
ai 'wont ˙sʌmwʌn hu z ə`kʌstəmd tə ˙weitiŋ ət ˌteibl̩.
'travliŋ bai ˙trein z 'prefrəbl̩ tə ˙travliŋ bai ˅bʌs.
ai m 'not ə˙vəːs tə 'getiŋ ʌp ˙əːli prə'vaidid it ˙izn̩t ˅daːk.

294   Position.   The general rule for any preposition is that it is placed before its object:

wil ju bi 'ðeə bai ´eit?   hi 'livz ə˙kros ðə ˌrivə.
ðei 'kʌt it wið ə `naif.          ai m 'not `toːkiŋ əbaut ˌdʒon.

In certain circumstances, however, the prepositions marked † in the lists in §289 do not follow this rule.   Nearly always in speech and very often in writing they are separated from their object if this is a conjunctive, relative or interrogative word.   These three classes of connectives (§295) occupy the initial position in their clauses, but the preposition governing them remains in its normal late position, which, in the absence of a following object, now becomes final in the sentence or clause.

The following examples of this word order show that the relatives (except **wot**) may be omitted and that the preposition, though usually unstressed, has no weak form when it is in the final position.

Prepositions governing interrogatives (§§313–7).

> 'huː(m) did ju ˎgiv it tu?
> 'wot əv ju bin ˏlukiŋ at?
> 'hau ˈmʌtʃ wil ðei ˏsel it foː?
> 'witʃ ˎʃop did ju ˏget ðə ˏkeik from?

Prepositions governing conjunctives (§§318–20).

> ai 'dount ˈnou 'witʃ ˈaksidn̩t ju ə ˏtoːkiŋ əbaut.
> hi 'wudn̩t ˈtel mi 'weər it əd ˏkʌm from.
> ai d bin ˎwʌndəriŋ ˏwot ju wə ˏlukiŋ at.
> wi l 'trai tə ˈfaind ˈaut 'hau ˈmʌtʃ ðei l ˎsel it foː.

Prepositions governing relatives (§§321–8).

> ˎðat ˏizn̩t wot wi ˏwontid tə ˏtoːk əbaut.
> 'izn̩t ´ðat ðə ˈwʌn (ðət) ju wə ˈlukiŋ at?
> 'wil ju ˈintrəˈdjuːs mi tə ðə 'gəːl (ðət) ju wə ˈhaviŋ ´tiː wið?
> ðei 'mei əv ˈleft it ʌndə ðə 'triː (ðət) ðei wə ˎhaidiŋ bihaind.

The alternative construction for three of the above examples is shown below. It will be seen that this follows the general rule for the placing of prepositions, but students are advised to be chary of using it, as it sounds unnatural, stilted, and in some cases even clumsy.

> frəm 'witʃ ˎʃop did ju ˏget ðə ˏkeik?
> ai 'dount ˈnou əbaut 'witʃ ˈaksidn̩t ju ə ˎtoːkiŋ.
> ˎðat ˏizn̩t ˏðat əbaut witʃ wi ˏwontid tə ˏtoːk.

When such sentences are put into the passive, the preposition almost invariably occupies the end position.

> 'witʃ ˎʃop wəz ðə ˏkeik ˏgot from?
> wi l 'trai tə ˈfaind ˈaut 'hau ˈmʌtʃ it | bi ˎsould foː.
> 'izn̩t ´ðat ðə ˈwʌn ðət wəz biːiŋ ˈlukt at?

When verbs taking a prepositional object are used in the passive, the preposition takes the end position, even in principal clauses.

> ðə 'miːl z oːlˈredi bin ˎpeid foː.
> kən joː 'brʌðə bi riˈlaid on?
> 'nou diˈsiʒn̩ wəz əˎraivd at.
> 'havn̩t ðei bin ´ritn̩ tu?

G. Connectives

295 Classification. These are words that connect clauses, phrases, and sometimes individual words.[1] They fall into five main classes, each of which has sub-divisions. These classes are:

1. Co-ordinating conjunctions
2. Subordinating conjunctions
3. Interrogatives
4. Conjunctives
5. Relatives.

The difference between the first two classes is that co-ordinating conjunctions join clauses that are independent of one another while subordinating conjunctions join a dependent clause to a principal clause. Another difference is that if two co-ordinate clauses have the same subject it is seldom necessary to repeat it in the second clause, whereas subordinate clauses must always have their subject expressed. Compare:

Co-ordinate: ai l ˈsiː im ən ˈtel im ˙wot tə ˈduː.

Subordinate: ˈwen ai ˌsiː im ai l ˈtel im ˙wot tə ˈduː.

The Interrogatives, Conjunctives and Relatives form three closely parallel series.[2] This, and the further fact that while, strictly speaking, the Interrogatives do not join clauses of the same sentence, they do introduce Special Questions (§41) and form the link between these and the sentence that answers them, may justify their inclusion here. There are pronominal, adjectival and adverbial words in all three sets of connectives, as may be seen from the following table, which is intended as a guide to the sections (§§313–328) in which the functions of these words are described.

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[1] "The term Connective is used to comprise all words, whether Pronouns, Adjectives, Adverbs or Conjunctives, which serve to connect clauses or sentences." *Recommendation XXXI of the Committee on Grammatical Terminology.*

[2] "The interrogative pronouns are also used as conjunctive pronouns in English." "All the interrogative adverbs are used relatively and conjunctively as well." Sweet's *New English Grammar.*

Function	Interroga-tives	Conjunc-tives	Rela-tives	Reference
Pronominal	ˋhuː	ˋhuː	huː	Persons
	(ˆhuːm)	(ˆhuːm)	(huːm)	Persons
	ˋhuːz	ˋhuːz	——	Possessive
	ˋwot	ˋwot	wot	Things
	ˋwitʃ	ˋwitʃ	witʃ	Selective
Adjectival	ˋhuːz	ˋhuːz	huːz	Possessive
	ˋwot	ˋwot	wot	Things
	ˋwitʃ	ˋwitʃ	——	Selective
Adverbial	ˋhau	ˋhau	——	Manner
	ˋweə*	ˋweə*	weə*	Place
	ˋwen	ˋwen	wen	Time
	ˋwai	ˋwai	wai	Cause
	ˈhauˋ...	ˈhauˋ...	——	Degree

In addition to the above there are three connectives that have only one position in the above table:

if   which is a conjunctive (and a subordinating conjunction —§302),

weðə*   which is a conjunctive only,

ðət   which is a relative referring to persons or things (and a general conjunction—§311).

CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

296   Forms and functions.   The comparatively few co-ordinating conjunctions join clauses or words of equal status in the sentence. They express various relationships between the elements that they join.

Addition: and (ənd, ən, n̩d, n̩)

ˈwoːk ˈslouli ən ˌkeəfl̩i.   ˈblak ən ˋwait ˌfoutəgrafs | ˌduː.
ai ˌwont ˈðis ˋand ði ˌʌðə.   ˈwount ju ˈhav sm̩ ˈbred n̩ ˋbʌtə ?
ai v ˋritn̩ ðə ˌletə tə joːr ˌʌŋkl̩ ən ˈteikən it tə ðə ˌpoust.

Alternatives: oː* (ə*)

wəz it ˈwel oː ˋbadli ˌdʌn ?   wəz ðə ˌlait ˈred, oː ˌgriːn ?
ʃl̩ wi ˌteik ˈdis oː ˌðat ?   ai ˌsoː ˈwʌn ə ˈtuː ˌswoluz.
d ju ˌwont tə ˈstei ˈin ðis ˈiːvniŋ, oː ˈgou ˌaut ?

Note that questions containing the conjunction **o:** * have a special intonation : a rising tone before the **o:** *, and a falling tone after it. They are often known as Alternative Questions.

Addition to a negative : **no:** * (with inversion in the second clause)

ˋai m ˌnot ˌil, 'no: z ˋhi:.   ˋju: ˌwount ˌlaik it, 'no: ʃ| ˋai.

Opposition : **bʌt** (bət) ; **jet**

ˋju: ˌka:nt ˌri:d ˌfrentʃ, bət ˋai ˌkan.
ʃi 'keim tə ˇsi: əs, bət 'didn̩t ˋstei ˌloŋ.
hi had ə ˇstrikt, bət 'welˇmi:niŋ, ˋfa:ðə.
ai 'spouk ˇslouli, jet 'kudn̩t ˙meik im ˙ʌndəˏstand.
ʃi z riˇzə:vd, jet ˋpopjulə.

Motive : **fo:** * (fə*)

ai 'ʃa:nt ˇbai it, fər ai 'ka:nt əˋfo:d it.

Correlative conjunctions.

These are pairs of co-ordinating conjunctions used in each of two clauses in the same sentence. It is important to preserve "parallelism" with them, i.e., to see that each conjunction of the pair is followed by the same part of speech. They belong to the first two of the above classes.

Addition : **bouθ** . . . **ənd** ; **not ounli** . . . **bət o:lsou**

hi 'spi:ks bouθ 'frentʃ ənd ˌiŋgliʃ.
hi bouθ 'weid ðə ˌrisks ən 'feist ðə ˏkonsikwn̩siz.
ðei ˏwə:k bouθ mi'tikjuləsli ənd ˋakjuritli.
jo: 'brʌðə z ˙bouθ ə 'helpf| ˌneibər n̩d ə kən'dʒi:nj| kəmˏpanjən.
ai 'not ounli disˇlaik im, bət 'o:lsou əˋvoid im wen ai ˌkan.
hi z 'not ounli ˇtriki, bət 'o:lsou disˋonist.
ai m ˌto:kiŋ 'not ˙ounli tə ˇju:, bət 'o:lsou tə ði ˋʌðəz.

Alternatives : **aiðə** * . . . **o:** * ; **naiðə** * . . . **no:** *

ju məs ˌdu: it aiðə ˌpropəli o: 'not ət ˋo:l.
ʃi z ˌaiðər 'il o: ˋleizi.
ju məs ˌbai aiðər 'o:l əv ðəm, o: 'nʌn ət ˏo:l.
ðei ə ˏkʌmiŋ 'naiðə bai ˌtrein 'no: bai ˏbʌs.
hi z ˌaiðə 'mist ðə ˌtrein, o: di'saidid ˙not tə ˋkʌm.
'aiðə ju məs ˙gou ət ˏwʌns, 'o: ju l ˙hav tə 'stei ðə ˋnait.

The last two of the above examples show clearly how parallelism works with the correlative conjunctions. With all the other co-ordinating conjunctions except **fo:***, if the same subject applies to both clauses it need not be repeated in the second clause. The same usually applies to any conjugators that may be common to both clauses; this excludes, of course, cases in which there is a change of tense or from affirmative to negative. In the following examples the words in parentheses are better omitted; it will be seen that in the third and fourth sentences only the subject can be dispensed with.

ai ʃl əv 'finiʃt mai ˈletər ənd (ai ʃl əv) ˋpoustid it bai ˌsiks.

ʃl 'mʌst əv bin ˈweitiŋ ən (ʃi ˈmʌst əv bin) 'wʌndəriŋ ˈweə wi ˋwəː.

al v bin pri'peəriŋ fə ðə ˌtrip, ənd (ai) ʃl bi 'staːtiŋ təˋmoru.

ðei v 'dʌn ðə riˇpeəz, bət (ðei) 'havṇt ˈfiniʃt ðə ˋpeintiŋ jet.

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

297 Classification. There are considerable numbers of conjunctions that join subordinate clauses to principal ones, but they can be conveniently classified according to the type of clause that they introduce and the type of question that the clause answers. On this basis we have subordinating conjunctions introducing adverbial clauses of:

1. Manner	4. Condition	7. Reservation	10. Degree
2. Place	5. Motive	8. Concession	11. Comparison
3. Time	6. Effect	9. Proportion	12. General

Subordinating conjunctions are considered in detail in §§299–312.

298 Tenses in subordinate clauses. In clauses introduced by some of the subordinating conjunctions, more particularly those of Time, Condition, Proportion, Duration and Frequency, the modal finites are not used as temporals to form future or conditional tenses, but are introduced only if their modal meaning is required. Examples illustrating this point in respect of the conjunction if will be found in §179. The conjunctions that are subject to this rule are marked † in the sections that follow.

299 Adverbial clauses of manner. These answer the question
ˋhau. The preposition laik must not be used as a substitute for az.
    əz if
        it 'luks əz if it | ˋrein.   hi 'aktid əz if i wər əˋfreid.
    əz ðou
        hi 'did it əz ˙ðou i ˋlaikt it.   it 'luks əz ˙ðou i l 'kʌm təˋmoru.
    az (əz)
        hi 'did it əz ˋai did.   'nekst ˙jiə, hi l 'duː əz i ˏlaiks.

300 Adverbial clauses of place. These answer the question
ˋweə*? When the verb is one expressing movement the idea of
direction is added to that of place.
    weə*
        'juː ˙stei weə ju ˏlaik.   ju kən 'stei weə ju ˋlaik.
        ju ʃl 'gou weə ju ˏlaik.   wi 'gou weə wi ə ˙best ˏsəːvd.

301 Adverbial clauses of time. These answer the question
ˋwen ? They may precede the principal clause instead of following
it, in which case the conjunction is usually stressed and the strong
form of az is used.
    † wen
        ai 'did ˙ðat wen ai əˋraivd.   ai l 'duː it wen ai ˙hav ˏtaim.
    † wenˋevə*
        wen'evər ai ˋsiː im ai ˏsei ˏðat.
        ai l 'lisn̩ tu it wen'evər ai get ə ˏtʃaːns.
    † wail
        ai l 'duː it wail ai m ˋhiə.   ju məst 'rait it wail ju ə ˋhiə.
    † biˋfoə*
        'duː it biˈfoː ju ˏgou.   ai ˋoːlwiz ˏduː it biˏfoːr ai ˏgou.
    † ˋaːftə*
        'aːftə ju v ˏritn̩ it 'let mi ˋsiː it.
        ai ˋoːlwiz ˏlet ju ˏsiː ðəm ˏaːftər ai v ˏritn̩ ðəm.
    † diˋrektli
        di'rektli ai ˋsoː it ai ᵛrekəgnaizd it.
        ai ʃl 'rekəgnaiz it diˈrektli ai ᵛsiː it.
    † az (əz)
        ai ri'membəd it əz ai wəz ˙kʌmiŋ ˏbak.
        'az wi ˙gou əˏloŋ ai l iksˋplein it tə ju.

† sins

'sins ai ˙keim ‚bak ai v ˙ritṇ 'θriː ˎletəz.

'sins ai ˙keim ‚bak ai v bin 'raitiŋ ˎletəz.

302 Adverbial clauses of condition. These answer the questions in 'wot ˎkeis? or on 'wot kən'diʃṇz?

In clauses introduced by some of these conjunctions ʃud is used (in all persons) to suggest doubt that the condition will be fulfilled. Similarly wəː tu is used (also in all persons) to emphasize the sense of condition. As shown in brackets below, the conjugation if may be replaced by inversion of wəː, had or ʃud with the subject.

† if

ai l 'duː it tə'moru if ai ‚hav ‚taim.

ai d 'duː it tə'moru if ai ‚had ‚taim. (‚had ai ‚taim.)

ai d əv 'dʌn it ˎjestədi if ai d ‚had ‚taim. (‚had ai had ‚taim.)

if ju 'siː ‚dʒon 'tel im ai ˎwont im.

if ju ʃəd 'siː ‚dʒon 'tel im ai ˎwont im. ('ʃud ju ˙siː . . .)

if ju wə tə 'gou ‚nau, ju d ˎsiː im. ('wəː ju tə 'gou . . .)

† if ˎounli or if . . . ˎounli

if 'ounli ju d ˎtould mi ‚ðat, ai 'ʃudṇt əv ˎritṇ.

if ju d 'ounli ˙kiːp ˅kwaiət, ai ʃəd 'finiʃ in ˎnou ‚taim.

if ju d 'ounli ˙kept ˅kwaiət, ai ʃəd əv ˎfiniʃt bai ‚nau.

† prə˅vaidiŋ or prə˅vaidid (ðət)

ai l 'kʌm prə˙vaidiŋ ju 'let mi ˎnou in gud ‚taim.

prə'vaidid ju ˙draiv ˅keəfļi, ai l 'let ˎjuː ‚teik ‚ouvə.

† sə'pouz or sə'pouziŋ (ðət), usually in front position and followed by a question in the main clause. In all these cases ʃəd may replace ʃl.

sə'pouz ai ˎsiː im, 'wot ʃl ai ‚tel im?

sə'pouziŋ i ˙isṇt ˎin, ʃl ai 'liːv ə ˎnout?

sə'pouziŋ i ʃəd bi ˎaut, ʃl ai 'liːv ə ˎnout?

'wot ʃl ai ‚tel im, sə‚pouziŋ ai wə tə ‚siː im?

† on kən'diʃṇ (ðət)

ju kən 'teik it ˎnau on kən‚diʃṇ (ðət) ju ri‚təːn it tə‚moru.

on kən'diʃṇ ju bi˅heiv jəself ai l 'let ju ˙gou ə˅loun.

† əz ˎloŋ əz (the use of this conjunction in adverbial clauses of cause—§303a—is an Americanism).

ai 'dount ˙maind ˎhau ju ‚duː it əz ‚loŋ əz ju ‚duː it ˅kwikli.

əz 'loŋ əz ju ˙duː it ˅kwikli it 'dʌzṇ ˙matə ˎhau ju ‚duː it.

† ən'les (compare these with the if clauses and notice the insertion
   of the negation, and the change of intonation).
   ai 'ʃaːnt ˙duː it tə˙moru ən'les ai ˙hav ᵛtaim.
   ai 'ʃudṇt ˙duː it tə˙moru ən'les ai ˙had ᵛtaim.
   ən'les ju ˙gou ᵛnau, ju 'wount ˋsiː ðəm.
   ən'les ju ˙went ᵛnau, ju 'wudṇt ˋsiː ðəm.

303 Adverbial clauses of motive. The clauses that explain
the motive for a certain course of action fall into three sub-divisions.

a. Clauses of cause, answering the question ˋwai?
   bi'koz
      bi'koz ʃi ᵛwontid it ʃi ˋtuk it.
      ai ʃl ᵛteik it bikoz ai ˋwont it (*or* ʃl ˋwont it).
   sins
      wi 'mei əz wel ˋliːv, sins ðə z 'nou ˙point in ᵛsteiiŋ.
      ˌsins ju 'kaːnt ˋfiniʃ it in ˌtaim, 'wai not ˙giv ˋʌp?
   əz (az)
      ai 'ʃaːnt ˋgou ˌnau, əz it s 'tuː ˙leit tə 'duː eni ˋgud.
      əz wi 'havṇt ᵛhəːd frəm ðəm ai sə'pouz ðei l bi ˋkʌmiŋ.
   'nau (ðət)
      'wot d ju ˋθiŋk əv im, 'nau (ðət) ju v ˋsiːn im?
      'nau (ðət) ai m ᵛhiər ai d 'betə ˋstei.
   'siːiŋ (ðət)
      'wot ə ju ˙gouiŋ tə ˋduː, ˌsiːiŋ (ðət) ðei 'wount əˋgriː?
      'siːiŋ ðət ai m ˙kʌmiŋ təᵛmoru, ai 'θiŋk ai l ˋgou ˌnau.
   in 'vjuː əv ðə ˙fakt ðət
      ai l ˋwaiə ðəm, in ˌvjuː əv ðə ˌfakt ðət ai ˌmist ðə ˌpoust.
      in 'vjuː əv ðə ˙fakt ðət ˋʃiː z ˌhiə, wi pri'fəː tə ˌliːv.

b. Clauses of contingency, also answering the question ˋwai?
   in ˋkeis
      ai l 'teik mai ʌmˋbrelə, in 'keis it ˋreinz.
      in 'keis it ʃəd ˌrein, ai l 'teik mai ʌmˋbrelə.
      it 'mei ˋrein; ai l 'teik mai ʌmˋbrelə in ˋkeis.

c. Clauses of purpose, answering the question 'wot ˋfoː?
   ˌsou ðət
      ai v 'put it ˋhiə, ˌsou ðət i kən 'siː it wen i ˌkʌmz.
      ai l 'put it ˋhiə, ˌsou ðət i l 'siː it wen i ˌkʌmz.

in 'ɔːdə ðət

    ai l ˌhav 'evriθiŋ ˌredi, in 'ɔːdə ðət ðə ʃl bi 'nou diˌlei.

    'wil ju ˈaːsk im tə ˌsiː mi, in 'ɔːdə ðət wi mei ˊsetl ðə matə?

304 Adverbial clauses of effect.   These do not answer any specific question.

'sou . . . (ðət)

    ai wəz 'sou ˈtaiəd (ðət) ai 'went tə ˈbed ət ˏwʌns.

    ju l bi 'sou ˈtaiəd (ðət) ju l 'hav tə ˈgou tə ˈbed ət ˏwʌns.

'sʌtʃ . . . ðət

    hi 'kept mi ˈweitiŋ 'sʌtʃ ə ˈloŋ ˌtaim ðət ai 'went əˋwei.

    it wəz 'sʌtʃ ə ˌhevi wʌn ðət ai 'kudn̩t ˏkari it bai maiˌself.

305 Adverbial clauses of reservation.   These do not answer any specific question.

ikˋsept ðət

    ai d 'gou ðeə ˋnau ikˌsept ðət ai m ˌtuː ˌtaiəd.

    ai d əv 'gon ðeə ˋjestədi ikˌsept ðət ai wəz 'tuː ˌbizi.

ikˋseptiŋ ðət

    ai d 'gou ðeə təˋmoru ikˌseptiŋ ðət ai ˌʃaːnt ˌhav ˌtaim.

306 Adverbial clauses of concession.   These do not answer any specific question.

ðou

    ðou i 'dʌzn̩t ˇlaik mi hi 'puts ˋʌp wið mi.

    ai l ˋtrai tə ˌduː it, ðou ai 'havn̩t ˈmʌtʃ ˈhoup əv səkˇsiːdiŋ.

ɔːlˋðou

    hi z 'veri ˇklevər ɔːlðou i 'dʌznt ˏˈluk it.

    ai l 'rait tu im təˋnait, ɔːlðou ai ʃl ˋsiː im təˌmoru.

    ɔːlˋðou ai ˈhad ə 'bad ˌnait, ai 'got ʌp ˋəːli ðis ˌmɔːniŋ.

† 'iːvn̩ if

    ai ˈʃaːnt hav ˈtaim tə ˇsiː im ˈiːvn̩ if i ˋkʌmz.

    'iːvn̩ if i ˋkeim ai ˌʃudn̩t hav ˌtaim tə ˏsiː im.

    ˋðat ˌwount ˌmeik eni ˌdifrn̩s, 'iːvn̩ if it s ˋtruː.

    'iːvn̩ if 'ðat wə ˋtruː, it 'wudn̩t 'meik eni ˏˋdifrn̩s.

weərˋaz

    ˇðis wʌn z ˋnjuː, weərˌaz ði ˇʌðə wʌn z ˈkwait ˋould.

    weərˌaz 'ai wəz ˈtould tə ˇstop, ˋjuː wə ˌtould tə ˈgou ˋon.

hauˋevə* (followed by a determiner, adjective or adverb).

    hi l ˋnevə ˌləːn it ˌpropəli hauˋevə ˌmʌtʃ i ˌstʌdiz.

    hauˈevə ˋgud i ˌiz hi ˈnevə gets ˙eni iŋˇkʌridʒmənt.

    hi ˈnevə kəm˙pleinz əv ðə ˇfuːd, hauˋevə ˌbadli it s ˌkukt.

in ˋspait əv ðə ˌfakt ðət

    hi ˈwent ˌaut in ˈspait əv ðə ˙fakt ðət i ˈwozn̩t ˌˇwel.

in ˈspait əv ðə ˙fakt ðət ʃi ˇlaiks ju, ʃi əˋvoidz ju.

307 Adverbial clauses of **proportion.** These do not answer any specific question. Of the two clauses, the first is the subordinate and the second the principal. Many combinations of comparative determiners, adjectives and adverbs are used; only a few examples are given here.

    † ðə ˈmoə* . . . ðə ˋmoə* ; ðə ˈmoə* . . . ðə ˋles

    † ðə ˈles . . . ðə ˋmoə* ; ðə ˈles . . .ðə ˋles.

    † ðə ˈloŋgə* . . . ðə ˋbetə* ; ðə ˈmoː ˙keəf‖i . . . ðə ˈles ˋsatisfaid.

    ðə ˈmoər ai ˌgiv ju, ðə ˈmoə ju ˋwont.

    ðə ˈles ju ˌteik, ðə ˈmoə ju l ˙hav ˋleft.

    ðə ˈloŋgər ai ˌstei, ðə ˈbetər ai ˋlaik it.

    ðə ˈloŋgə ju ˌstei, ðə ˈbetə ju l ˋlaik it.

    ðə ˈmoː ˙keəf‖i ʃi ˌwəːks, ðə ˈles ˋsatisfaid ðei aː.

308 Adverbial clauses of **degree.** These clauses, all of which can answer questions beginning with hau followed by an adjective or an adverb, cover a very wide range of subjects. In many cases questions of this kind prompt a comparison ; the clauses are then introduced by one of the conjunctions listed in §309. These clauses of degree fall into various sub-divisions, of which the following may be distinguished :

a. Clauses of distance, answering the question ˈhau ˋfaː ?

    ˈʌp tə ˋweə*

        ðə θəˈmomitə z gon ˙ʌp tə ˈweər it ˙woz ˋjestədi.

    ˈdaun tə ˋweə*

        ˈriːd ˙daun tə ˈweə wi ˙stopt ˋlaːst ˌtaim.

b. Clauses of duration, answering the question ˈhau ˋloŋ ?

    † til *or* ənˋtil

        hi ˈjuːst tə ˙weit ˙hiər əntil ai ˈkeim ˋbak.

        hi ˋoːlwiz ˌweits ˌhiər əntil ai ˌkʌm ˌbak.

ˈtel im tə ˈweit ˈhiə til ju ˈkʌm ˌbak.

ai ʃl bi ˈwəːkiŋ ˈhiə til ju ˌkoːl fə mi.

† sins

ai v ˈritn̩ ə ˈlot əv ˌletəz ˌsins ai got ˌbak.

ˈsins ai ˈgot ˌbak ai v ˈdʌn ˈnʌθiŋ bət ˈrait ˌletəz.

† ˈevə sins

ai v bin ˈraitiŋ ˈletəz ˌevə sins ai ˌgot ˌbak.

ˈevə sins ai ˈgot ˌbak ai v bin ˈraitiŋ ˈletəz.

† ˈoːl ðə ˈtaim (ðət)

ˈoːl ðə ˈtaim (ðət) i wəz ˌhiə hi did ˈnʌθiŋ bət ˌgrʌmbl̩.

hi ˈgrʌmbl̩z ˈoːl ðə ˈtaim i z ˈhiə.

ai ʃl bi ˈraitiŋ ˈletəz ˌoːl ðə ˌtaim ðət ai m əˌwei.

c. *Clauses of frequency*, answering the question ˈhau ˈofn̩ ?

† wen

ai ˈteik ə ˈrest wen ai ˇkan.

ˈwen ai ˈhav ˌtaim ai l ˈrait tə ju.

† wenˈevə*

ˌðat s wot ˈai ˌsei wenˈevər ai ˈsiː im.

wenˈevə wi ˌkud, wi ˈjuːst tə ˈvizit ðəm.

wi l ˈgou ən ˌsiː ðəm wenˈevə wi ˈhav ˌtaim.

† əz ˈofn̩ əz

ai ˈrout tə ju əz ˈofn̩ əz ai ˇkud.

ˈkʌm ən ˈsiː mi əz ˈofn̩ əz ju ˌlaik.

wil ju ˈrait tu əs əz ˈofn̩ əz ju ˊkan ?

309 Adverbial clauses of comparison. These may answer
questions beginning with ˈhau followed by a determiner, an adjective
or an adverb. The three forms that comparisons may take are
explained in §§108–110, and the following examples show some of
the qualities, etc., that may be compared.

<div align="center">*Comparisons using determiners*</div>

Quantity

ˈmoː ðən	ˈdount ˈtrai tə duː ˈmoː ðən ju ˇkan.
əz ˈmʌtʃ əz	ˈteik əz ˈmʌtʃ əz ju ˌwont.
ˈles ðən	ˌai v got ˈles ˈmiːt ðən ˇjuː hav.

Number

ˈmoː ðən   ˌðiːz ə ˈmoː ðən wi kən ˌmanidʒ.

əz ˈmeni əz   ðə ˈwəːnt əz (*or* sou) ˈmeni əz ai ˈθoːt.

ˈfjuːə ðən   ai ˌgot ˈfjuːə ðən ai ˌdid ˈlaːst ˌtaim.

Comparisons using adjectives

Dimensions

ˈlaːdʒə ðən   it s ˈlaːdʒə ðən ai ˈθoːt it woz.

ˈloŋgə ðən   it s ˈraːðə ˈloŋgə ðən i ˈsed it woz.

əz ˈlaːdʒ əz   it ˈiznt əz ˈlaːdʒ əz ai ˈθoːt it woz.

Qualities of all kinds

ˈbetə ðən   it s ˈmʌtʃ ˌbetə ðən ai ˈθoːt it ˌwoz.

ˈheviə ðən   it s ˈheviə ðən ai iksˈpektid it tə ˌbiː.

ˈmoː ˈfit ðən   hi ˌluks ˈmoː ˈfit ðən ai v ˈevə ˈsiːn im.

əz ˈgud əz   it s ˈkwait əz ˌgud əz ai ˅θoːt.

əz ˈhevi əz   ˌmain z əz ˌhevi əz ˌjoːz iz.

əz ˈfit əz   ʃi ˌluks əz ˈfit əz ai v ˈevə ˈsiːn əː.

Comparisons using adverbs

Manner

ˈbetə ðən   ˈhiː kən ˌduː it ˌbetə ðən ˌjuː kan.

əz ˈwel əz   hi ˈdid it əz ˈwel əz i ˅kud.

Distance

† ˈfəːðə ðən   hi went ˈmʌtʃ ˌfəːðə ðən ai ˅aːskt im tu.

† əz ˈfaːr əz   ai ʃl ˌgou əz ˈfaːr əz ai ˈfiːl iŋˈklaind tu.

Time

† ˈsuːnə ðən   ai ʃl bi ˈðeə ˈsuːnə ðən ju ˈθiŋk.

† əz ˈsuːn əz   ai l ˈduː it əz ˈsuːn əz ai ˌkan.

Duration

† ˈloŋgə ðən   it ˌtuk ˈloŋgə ðən ai ˈθoːt it ˌwud.

† əz ˈloŋ əz   ju ʃl ˈstei ˈhiər əz ˈloŋ əz ju ˌlaik.

310 Case after əz and ðən. In many instances the clauses introduced by these two conjunctions of the comparative may be reduced to phrases or even single words, the finite that they might contain being omitted as understood. Thus, in sentences like the following the words shown in brackets are usually left out.

ˈai v dʌn ˋmoː ðən ˌˇjuː (hav).

ˋai v dʌn əz ˌmʌtʃ əz ˌˇjuː (hav).

ˌai v dʌn ˈles ðən ˇjuː (hav).

ˌðis wʌn z ˈlaːdʒə ðən ˌˇðat (wʌn iz).

ai ˈlaik ˇðis wʌn əz ˈwel əz (ai laik) ˋeni əv ðəm.

ˈðis wʌn ˈizn̩t əz (*or* sou) ˋlaːdʒ əz ˇðat (wʌn iz).

This raises the question as to whether in such cases **ðən** and **əz** are functioning as prepositions rather than subordinating conjunctions. Sweet, in his *New English Grammar*, §380, stated the case for this point of view, which, if accepted, means that when one of the five pronouns having special forms for the oblique case is needed in this position, that special form will be used, thus:

hi z ˈtoːlə ðən ˌˇmiː.   ˋwiː v ˌgon əz ˌfaːr əz ˌðem.

While many grammarians adhere to the view that this practice is ungrammatical, it has to be recognized that it is extremely widely used. Some speakers, in order to avoid involvement in the controversy, prefer to retain the finites, thus justifying the use of the nominative form of the pronoun:

hi z ˈtoːlə ðən ˋai ˌam.   ˋwiː v ˌgon əz ˌfaːr əz ˌðei hav.

311 The general conjunction. In addition to its use in combination with other words to introduce adverbial clauses (§§302–6 and 308), the word **ðət** is used as a general conjunction to introduce noun clauses. These may be either the subject or the object of the verb in the principal clause. Many of these clauses resemble, and may replace, some of the infinitive phrases described in §§241–250. The following are some examples.

a. As subject of a verb

ðət ju ʃəd ˈəːn ˙oːl ˙ðat ˌmʌni ˈmʌs bi ˙veri ˌgratifaiiŋ.

ðət ai wəz ˈnot ˙held risˇponsibl̩ riˈliːvd mi triˋmendəsli.

b. With precursory ðeə*

ðə z ˈnou diˈmaːnd ðət ju ʃəd riˋzain frəm joː ˌpoust.

ðə z bin ˈnou prəˈpous| ðət ði əˈgriːmənt ʃəd bi ˇkansld.

c. With precursory it and adjective complement

it s ˈʌndiˋnaiəbl̩ ðət joː ˌfaːðə z ˌˇdʒenərəs.

it wəz ˋfoːtʃn̩it ðət ai wəz ˌnot ˌheld ris ˌponsibl̩.

d. With precursory it *and noun complement*

it s ə ˈʃeim ðət wi ˌkaːnt bi inˌdʒoiiŋ ðis ˌbrait ˌsʌnʃain.
it s ə ˈnjuːsn̩s ðət ai ˌkaːnt ˌstaːt til ˌnekst ˌwiːk.

e. As object of a verb

ˈpliːz riˈmembə ðət ju məst ˈhav it ˈredi bai ˈwenzdi.
ai ˈdidn̩t ˈpromis ðət ai d əˌkʌmpəni ju.

f. As predicate

ˈwil ju ˈtel ðəm ðət ˈoːl ðə ˈwinduz məs bi ˈkliːnd?
ai riˈmaindid əː ðət ʃi ˈhad tə ˈget ˈʌp ˈəːli.

In clauses of types *d*, *e* and *f* the general conjunction is frequently omitted, giving rise to what is called a Contact Clause, thus:

d. it s ə ˈnjuːsn̩s ai ˌkaːnt ˌstaːt til ˌnekst ˌwiːk.
e. ˈpliːz riˈmembə ju məst ˈhav it ˈredi bai ˈwenzdi.
f. ˈwil ju ˈtel ðəm ˈoːl ðə ˈwinduz məs bi ˈkliːnd?

In American English the conjunction is often omitted in clauses of types *b* and *c*, as well as in those mentioned above.

In sentences such as the following the general conjunction is never expressed:

ai ˈwiʃ i d �ᵛweit!   ai ˈhoup it ˈdʌzn̩t ˈrein təˌmoru.
ai ˈwiʃ i d �ᵛweitid!   ai ˈtrʌst i ˈhazn̩t fəᵛgotn̩ it.
it s ˈtaim wi wə ˌgouiŋ.   ai d ˈraːðə ju ˈstaːtid təᵛmoru.

Notice that in the two examples on the last line past tenses are used with a future or present reference. They are acting as substitutes for a subjunctive expressing a hypothesis.

312 The ing-form after conjunctions.   In §§256 and 293 examples were given of gerunds as prepositional objects. In some cases the ing-form follows words which may be either prepositions or conjunctions, and it is sometimes a moot point whether in these cases it is a gerund or not. Examples:

bifoə*   ju d ˈbetə ˈfiniʃ ˈðis ˌwəːk biˌfoː ˌstaːtiŋ eniθiŋ ˌels.
əntil   əntil ˈtiːtʃiŋ ˌiŋgliʃ ai ˈnevə ˈriəlaizd its ˌdifikl̩tiz.
aːftə*   aːftə ˈhiəriŋ ði ˈʌðə ˌsaid ai ˈgeiv ˈmai əˌpinjən.
sins   ai v ˈtʃeindʒd mai ˈmaind sins ˌriːdiŋ ˌðat ˌbuk.

When the connective cannot in any circumstances be regarded as a preposition, it is clear that the ing-form is not a gerund, but is forming part of an adverbial phrase:

wen   wen 'spiːkiŋ ˌiŋgliʃ, hi 'ofn ˙meiks misˋteiks.
wail   ai 'vizitid ðə ˙britiʃ mjuˋziəm wail ˌsteiiŋ in ˌlʌndən.
ðou   ðou ə'griːiŋ wið ðə ˬfigəz, ai 'kaːnt ək˙sept ðə kəŋˋkluːʒn̩z.

In either case this is a somewhat formal construction, not much used in spoken English, where it is usually replaced by adverbial clauses as shown below.

... biˌfoə ju ˌstaːt eniθiŋ ˌels.   'wen i ˙spiːks ˌiŋgliʃ ...
əntil ai ˋtoːt ˌiŋgliʃ ...   ... wail ai wəz ˌsteiiŋ in
'aːftər ai d ˙həːd ði 'ʌðə ˌsaid ...   ˌlʌndən.
... sins ai ˌred ˌðat ˌbuk.   ðou ai ə'griː wið ðə ˬfigəz ..

INTERROGATIVES

313 Characteristics. The interrogatives, which may be pronominal, adjectival or adverbial in nature, introduce the sentences known as Particular (or Special) Questions. As was explained in §43, such questions normally take a Tune II. The nuclear tone is usually placed on the last stressed word of the sentence, but may fall on the interrogative word if there is no later word that can accommodate it. As the interrogatives are nearly always stressed they have no weak forms. A classified list is given in §295.

A very important structural point to note is that when an interrogative is the subject of the verb an affirmative construction must be used:

'huː ˙got hiə ˌfəːst ?   'witʃ 'buk ə'piːlz tə ju ˌmoust ?
'wot ˙meid ˙ðat ˌnoiz ?   'hau ˙meni əv ju | ˌgiv mi wʌn ?

Compare these sentences with the following in which the interrogative is the object of the verb, and an interrogative construction is used:

'huː(m) did ju ˌsiː ðeə ?   'witʃ 'buk d ju 'laik ˌbest ?
'wot wə ju ˌmeikiŋ ?   'hau ˙meni əv ðəm wil ju ˌgiv mi ?

As explained in §294, certain prepositions take the end position when their object is an interrogative word. Here are further examples:

'huː(m) did ju ˌspiːk tu?   'witʃ ˙buk iz i ˌtoːkiŋ əbaut?
'wot did ju duː ˋðat wið?   'hau meni ˙piːpl̩ ə ju ˌkeitəriŋ foː?

The prepositions that take this end position are marked † in the lists given in §289.

314 Pronominal interrogatives: huː (huːm), huːz, wot, witʃ. With the exception of huːm these may function as subject, subject-complement, direct object or prepositional object. They are used as follows:

huː

This refers to persons only, and may be singular or plural. While it was originally used only as a subject or subject-complement, it has for very many years replaced huːm as an object, especially in natural conversation.

'huː ˙tould ju ˌðat?   'huː z ðə ˙tʃeəmən əv ðə ˌmiːtiŋ?
'huː əv ju ˌritn̩ tu?   'huː did ju ˙siː ət ðə ˌpaːti?

It is used to ask about a person's identity:

'huː ˌiz i?—hi z mistə ˋsmiθ.   hi z ðə ˋprezidn̩t.

huːm

This refers to persons only, and may be singular or plural. Though nominally the correct form for the direct and prepositional objects, it is avoided by the great majority of speakers, who prefer to use huː in all cases. It is, however, to be met with in written English and in a ceremonial style of speech. When it is used, any preposition that governs it is usually placed before it instead of in the end position.

'huːm əv ju ˌsiːn?   'huːm did ðei ˙hould ˌprizmə?
fə 'huːm wə ju ˌpliːdiŋ? *or* 'huːm wə ju ˌpliːdiŋ foː?

huːz

This refers to possession by persons and, though usually adjectival, may be used pronominally.

'huːz iz ðat ˌbuk?   'huːz did ju ˌboru?

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wot

This refers to things, and may be either singular or plural.   It is invariable for case.

ˈwot ˈmeid ˈðat ˌnoiz?   ˈwot s ðə ˌtaim?
ˈwot did ju ˌsei tə ðəm?   ˈwot did ju ˈduː ˋðat foː?
ˈwot ə ˋðouz θiŋz?   ˈwot ə ðə ˌvizitiŋ auəz?

It is used to ask about a person's nationality, social standing or profession.

ˈwot ˋiz i?—hi z ə ˋspanjəd.   hi z ə ˋtiːtʃə.

witʃ

This is selective, asking for one or more members of a class to be picked out from the rest.   It may refer to either persons or things, and may be either singular or plural.   It is invariable for case, and is more frequently adjectival than pronominal.   When used as a pronoun it is frequently followed by a participial phrase indicating the class from which the choice is to be made.

ˈwitʃ əv ˈðouz ˈmen iz joː ˌbrʌðə? *or* ˈwitʃ iz joː ˌbrʌðə?
ˈwitʃ əv ˈðiːz ˈpiktʃəz ˈgeiv ju ðə ˈmoust ˌpleʒə?
ˈwitʃ əv ˈðouz ˈtuː ˈbuks did ju ˈfaind ˈmoust ˌintristiŋ?
ˈwitʃ əv ðə ˈboiz əv ju ˌspoukən tu?

hau mʌtʃ, hau meni, hau litl̩, hau fjuː

Though generally adjectival, these collocations may be used pronominally.

ˈhau ˈmʌtʃ d ju ˌwont?   ˈhau ˈmeni did ju ˌsiː?
ˈhau ˈlitl̩ ˌwoz ðə?   ˈhau ˈfjuː kən ju ˌduː wið?

315   Adjectival interrogatives: huːz, wot, witʃ.   These have the same references as when they are pronominal.

huːz

This refers to possession (of persons or things) by persons.

ˈhuːz ˈdoktər əˌtendid ju?   ˈhuːz ˈtʃildr̩n wə ju ˌpleiiŋ wið?
ˈhuːz ˈhoːs iz ˌðat?   ˈhuːz ʌmˋbrelə həv ju ˌteikən?

wot

This usually refers to things, but is occasionally used for persons. It is used in asking for selection when the choice is felt to be unlimited.

'wot ˈidiət ˈtould ju ˌðat?   'wot ˌaːnsə did ju ˌgiv ðəm?
'wot ˈmedsin ə ju ˌteikiŋ?   'wot kənˈseʃnz əv ju ˌaːskt fɔː?

witʃ

This refers to persons or things, and is used in asking for selection when the choice is from a limited class.

'witʃ ˈboi ˈwʌn ðə ˌpraiz?   'witʃ ˈruːmz əv ðei ˌkliːnd?
'witʃ ˈwei iz ðə ˌʃɔːtist?   'witʃ ˈtrein ə ðei ˌkʌmiŋ bai?

hau mʌtʃ, hau meni, hau litl, hau fjuː

The following are examples of these collocations used adjectivally.

'hau mʌtʃ ˌtiː əv ju ˌgot?   'hau meni ˈpiːpl ə ˌkʌmiŋ?
'hau litl ˌmilk iz ðə?   'hau fjuː misˌteiks did ju ˌmeik?

The interrogative hau is also collocated with adjectives.

'hau ˈlaːdʒ iz jɔː ˌgaːdn̩?   'hau ˈgud wəz ðat ˌfilm ju ˌsɔː?

316   Adverbial interrogatives: hau, weə*, wen, wai.   These have their usual meanings.

hau

Adverb of manner, also used in inquiring after someone's health.
'hau d ju ˈlaik jɔː ˌtiː?   'hau dəz i ˈget ˈθruː sou 'mʌtʃ ˌwəːk?
'hau d ju ˌduː?   'hau z jɔː ˌbrʌðə?
'hau ˈaː ju?   'hau ər ˈɔːl ðə ˌfamili?

weə*

Adverb of place and direction.
'weər ˌiz it?   'weə did ju ˈput mai ˌbuk?
'weər ˌaː ðei?   'weər ə ju ˈgouiŋ fə jə ˌholidiz?

wen

Adverb of time.
'wen did ju ˌmiːt ðəm?   'wen | ði ˈʌðəz bi ˌredi?

wai

Adverb of motive or cause.
'wai ˈkaːnt ju ˌweit fə mi?   'wai dəz it ˌrein sou ˌmʌtʃ ˌhiə?

The interrogative hau is often collocated with adverbs of various kinds.

Manner	'hau ˈfluːəntli dəz ʃi 'spiːk ˌiŋgliʃ?
Distance	'hau ˈfaːr iz ˌlʌndən frəm ˌhiə?
Time	'hau ˈsuːn kən ju ˈlet mi ˌhav it?

Duration	'hau ˙loŋ did it ˌteik ?
Frequency	'hau ˙ofn̩ dəz i ˙kʌm tə ˌsiː ju ?

317 Interrogatives with evə* and els. Most of the interrogatives may be intensified by combining them with **evə***, while alternatives are expressed by adding **els**. Both these elements take a stress, and **els** usually takes the nuclear tone, which, since the question begins with an interrogative word, will normally be a Tone II.

evə*	els
Pronominal	
huː 'evə z ˎðat ?	'huː ˌels ˌwonts wʌn ?
——	'huː(m) ˌels əv ju ˌsiːn ?
——	'huːz ˌels əv ju ˌteikən ?
wot 'evə ˙meid ju ˎduː it ?	'wot ˌels iz ˌniːdid ?
witʃ 'evə did ju ˎteik ?	'witʃ ˌels d ju ˌwont ?
Adjectival	
wot 'evə ˙juːs wəz ˎðat ?	'wot pleis ˌels kəd it ˌbiː ?
witʃ 'evə ˙buk s ˎðat ?	'witʃ buk ˌels d ju ˌwont ?
Adverbial	
hau 'evə d ju ˎduː it ?	'hau ˎels kən ai ˌduː it ?
weər 'evər ə ju ˎgouiŋ ?	'weər ˎels kəd it ˌbiː ?
wen 'evə did ju ˎsiː im ?	'wen ˌels kəd ju ˌmiːt mi ?
wai 'evə did ju ˎduː it ?	'wai ˌels ʃəd ai ˌwont wʌn ?

Though the collocations huːm 'evə* and huːz 'evə* exist, they are very seldom used. In place of the former, many speakers would use the subject form, thus :

huː 'evə did ju ˎtel əbaut it ?

For the possessive form a paraphrase would be used, e.g.,

huː 'evə dəz ˎðis biˌloŋ tu ?

In popular speech the possessive 'huːz ˌels is usually replaced by 'huː ˌelsiz, so that the example on the third line of the above table would become :

'huː ˌelsiz əv ju ˌteikən ?

This practice arises from the feeling that huː els is a unit of the type referred to in §57.

CONJUNCTIVES

318 The particular conjunctives. This term is a convenient
one to designate a class of words which are closely parallel to the
interrogatives in form but which are used to introduce subordinate
noun clauses when the principal clause conveys such mental states
as interrogation, wonderment, ignorance, uncertainty or reticence.
The principal clause may be a statement, an imperative or a
question, and, like the interrogatives, the conjunctives may have
a pronominal, an adjectival or an adverbial nature.

In most cases the subordinate noun clause represents a particular
(or special) question that has been converted into an indirect
question ; the introductory interrogative word of the direct question
changes its role to become the conjunctive introducing the sub-
ordinate clause, thus :

'huː ˌiz it ?	>	ai 'dount ˙nou 'huː it ˌiz.
'weə z i ˌgouiŋ ?	>	ai 'wʌndə ˙weər i z ˌgouiŋ.
'hau did ʃi 'duː it ?	>	'tel mi ˙hau ʃi ˌdid it.

It is important to notice that the interrogative construction of
the direct question is converted into a statement construction in
the indirect question. A common mistake of foreign students of
English is to retain the interrogative construction in the indirect
question.

Unlike the interrogatives, conjunctives cannot be intensified by
evə*, and, unlike the relatives, they usually bear some degree of
sentence stress, and they have no antecedent.

319 The general conjunctives. This term may be applied to
the two conjunctives if and weðə*, which do not correspond to
any interrogative word, but serve to introduce subordinate noun
clauses representing general questions (§41) that have been con-
verted into indirect questions, thus :

ə ju ə'weər əv ˙ðat ?	>	ai 'wʌndə ˙weðə ju ər əˌweər əv ˌðat.
həz i 'siːn ðəm ?	>	'let mi ˙nou if i z ˅siːn ðəm.
kən ðei 'weit ?	>	'wil ju ˙tel mi if ðei kən 'weit ?

As will be seen from the above examples, the principal clause
may be a statement, an imperative or a question.

A certain difference in meaning between if and weðə* should be noticed. While if means "in the case that", weðə*, with its suggestion of duality or alternation (compare aiðə*, naiðə*, ʌðə*), means "in this case or the other". In certain contexts, therefore, if may be ambiguous, and weðə* is to be preferred. Example:

'waiər if ai m tə ˌkʌm. = If I'm to come, send me a telegram.
'waiə 'weðər ai m tə ˌkʌm. = In any case send me a telegram saying whether I'm to come or not.

The difference in intonation suggests that the if-clause is felt to be adverbial, while the whether-clause is felt to be a noun clause.

320 Substitution tables. The tables given below show how and in what contexts the conjunctives work.

With reference to the intonation marking, it should be noted that, while the nucleus (§37) falls in the subordinate clause, the tone it takes is governed by the nature of the principal clause. If this is a statement or an imperative the nucleus may be Tone II (as shown) or sometimes Tone III, while questions usually take Tone I High (§31). To facilitate the making of the necessary changes, imperatives are marked (!), questions (?), and statements are left unmarked.

The general conjunctives.

This table gives fifty examples of the use of the two general conjunctives.

Principal Clause		*Conjunctive*	*Subordinate Clause*
ðə z 'nou 'nouiŋ		if	ai m tə 'gou təˌdei
ðei 'wount 'tel mi		'weðə*	it s ˌredi
it s 'haːd tə 'sei			ʃi 'wonts eni ˌmoə
'trai tə ri'membə*	(!)		ðei v ˌteikən it
'wount ðei 'tel ju	(?)		hi z əˌraivd

The particular conjunctives.

This table gives more than a thousand examples of the use of the particular conjunctives. The elements in the second and third columns are divided into five sections and are interchangeable only inside these sections, but the elements in the first column may be used with any of those in the other columns.

Principal Clause		Conjunctive	Subordinate Clause
ai 'dount ˙nou		˙huː	it ˌiz
ai 'kwait fə˙get		˙witʃ	ˋðis iz
ai 'wʌndə		˙wot	ˋðat iz
ai 'wont tə ˙nou		˙huːz	ðei ˌaː
it əd bi 'nais tə ˙nou		˙huː(m)	ju ˌsoː
ai l 'trai tə ˙faind ˙aut		˙witʃ	ðei ˌwont
ai m 'not ˙səːtn̩		˙wot	ʃi ˌdid it wið
ai hav 'nou ai˙diə			i ˌrout it foː
ai 'kaːnt ʌndə˙stand		˙huːz	ˋhat ðis ˌiz
it s ə 'mistəri tə ˙miː		˙witʃ	˙dei əv ðə ˌwiːk it ˌiz
ai m ə'freid tə ˙sei		˙wot	ˌbuk ðei v ˌteikən
wi 'tould ˙noubodi		˙hau	ju ə ˌgouiŋ
'aːsk im	(!)	˙weə	ʃi ˌsoː it
'tel mi	(!)	˙wen	ðei ˌdid it
'dount ˙tel ˙enibodi	(!)	˙wai	wi ˌgeiv it tə ðəm
'rait n̩ ˙let mi ˙nou	(!)	˙hau	˙mʌtʃ wəz ˌsent
'deənt ðei ˙sei	(?)		˙meni ðei ˌtuk
'wount ʃi iks˙plein	(?)		˙faː wi ˌwoːkt
həz 'evriwʌn bin ˙tould	(?)		˙loŋ wi ˌsteid
'dount ju ˙nou	(?)		ˌhai it ˌwent

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In contexts like those shown below the connectives follow principal clauses that neither contain words that might act as antecedents nor suggest uncertainty. In such cases the connective nearly always bears some stress, and it is therefore preferable to regard it as a conjunctive rather than a relative, which would be unstressed.

ˋðat s ˌhuː ʃi ˌiz.	ai 'nou ˙huː ˋels wɒnts wʌn.
ˌðat s ˙wot ai ˋtould ju.	ju 'nou ˙witʃ wʌn ˋai ˌtuk.
ai ˋgeiv ðəm ˌwot ai ˌkud.	ðə z 'nou ˙daut 'huːz it ˵iz.
ˋðis iz ˌhau it wəz ˌdʌn.	ai l 'tel ju ˙hau ai ˋhəːd əv it.
ˋðat s ˌweər ai ˌfaund it.	ðei ˋtould ju ˌweər it ˌwoz.
ˋðat wəz ˌwen it ˋhapənd.	ju ˋnjuː ˌwen ðei wə ˌkʌmiŋ.
'ðat s ˙wai ai ˋtuk it.	ˋai ˌnou ˌwai ðei ə ˌleit.
ju 'nou ˙hau ˎruːd ʃi ˌiz.	ˋðat ˌʃouz ˙hau ˋraip ðei ˌaː.

RELATIVES

321   Function. Comparison of the lists of conjunctives and relatives given in §295 will show that the relatives do not include the forms if and weðə*, but do include ðət, which is identical in pronunciation and spelling with the general conjunction (§311).

Though they introduce subordinate clauses, the relatives have a different function from that of the subordinating conjunctions in that they link their clauses with a specific antecedent in the principal clause. This antecedent is usually the noun or pronominal determiner immediately preceding the relative.

The relatives do not take sentence stress.

322   Defining and non-defining clauses. The clauses introduced by the relatives fall into two classes, known as defining (or restrictive) clauses and non-defining (or parenthetical) clauses. It is important to distinguish between these two classes, as they differ in function, in tonetic treatment, and usually in structure.

Defining clauses play an essential part in the sentence of which they form part, since they provide information whereby their antecedent may be picked out from among a class ; in fact they function as a kind of determiner and might more consistently be called Determining Clauses. Tonetically they are fully incorporated into the sentence ; they form part of the main tune of the sentence and there are no pauses before or after them.

Non-defining clauses are not essential to the meaning of the sentence, since their antecedent is always of such a nature as to identify or determine the person or thing referred to ; they are used to convey an additional piece of information about their antecedent. They are tonetically independent of the principal clause, being marked off from it by pauses before and after them and by having their own tune. This parenthetical insertion causes the tune of the principal clause to be broken into two parts, so that the part preceding the non-defining clause normally ends in a tone that finishes with a low rise (Tones IL, III or V). This tonetic independence is indicated in the written language by commas placed before and after the clause ; these commas are not present in the case of the defining clause.

It is possible to find instances in which the two kinds of clause have identical wording ; the following example will show how intonation (in speech) and punctuation (in writing) help in differentiating them.

Defining Clause.

ðə 'faiə witʃ 'staːtid 'hiə dis'troid 'siks ˌhauziz.

In this case there was more than one fire, and the one referred to is identified by stating where it started. The relative clause contains information that is essential to the proper understanding of the sentence.

Non-defining Clause.

ðə ᵛfaiə, witʃ 'staːtid ᵛhiə, dis'troid 'siks ˌhauziz.

In this case there was only one fire, and the parenthetical relative clause gives additional—but inessential—information as to where it started.

323 The independent relative. The relative **wot** has been called the independent relative as it is used without an antecedent ; in fact it is felt to contain its own antecedent and to be roughly synonymous in the singular with the combination ðat witʃ and in the plural with the phrase ðə θiŋz witʃ. It may be the subject, direct object or prepositional object of its clause. It is generally pronominal, but is sometimes used adjectivally, especially in a more formal style. Normally it refers to things in the singular, but it may, especially when adjectival, have a plural reference, and also be applied to persons.

Pronominal use.

ˈlaitniŋ z wot ˌskeəz ˏmiː.   ðei l ˈduː wot ðei ˋkan ˌfoː ju.
ˋðat s wot ˌgivz ju ˌhikʌps.   ˈluk wot ju v ˈdʌn tə mai ˏbuk !
ˈlaitniŋ z wot ˋai diˌtest.   ˈlaitniŋ z wot ˋai m əˌfreid ov.
hi ˋtould mi wot i ˏwoz.   ˋai ˌdount ˌnou wot ju ˌmiːn.
ˈhaiə ˋweidʒiz ə wot ðei ə ˌstraikiŋ ˈfoː.

Adjectival use.

ˋðis iz wot ˌwəːk wi v ˏdʌn.   ˋðiːz ə wot ˌfakts əv ˌkʌm tə ˌlait.
hi ˋwoːnd wot ˌpiːp| i ˏkud.   ai v ˋrʌŋ ʌp wot ˌfrendz ai ˌhav.

Subject clauses may begin with **wot.**

wot ˋai ˌsei ˈdʌznt ˋmatə.   wot ᵛpʌz|z mi iz ðə ˋvəːdikt.
wot ju ˌniːd iz ˈmoː ˋhelp.   wot ai ᵛwont iz tə bi ˋdʌn wið it.
wot ðei ᵛθiŋk ˈdʌzn ˋkaunt ; it s wot ðei ˋduː ðət ˏmatəz.

Students must resist the temptation to use **wot** after oːl. The normal relative after oːl is ðət for persons or things, though huː is sometimes used for persons. When the relative is objective it is often omitted.

ˈðis iz ˈoːl ðət wəz ˏleft.   ai v ˋgivn ju ˌoːl (ðət) ai ˌhad.
ˈoːl ðət (*or* hu) ˈwont tə ˌgou məs bi ˈredi bai ˈnain əˏklok.

The normally pronominal relatives huː and huːm are occasionally used as independent relatives when certain well-known literary quotations are used in conversation. In such cases they are assumed to contain their own antecedent ; thus in the examples below huː = hiː huː and huːm = ðouz huːm.

huː ˈstiːlz mai ˈpəːs ˈstiːlz ˋtraʃ.
huːm ðə ˋgodz ˌlʌv, ˈdai ˋjʌŋ.

324 Pronominal relatives. The antecedents of these may be singular or plural nouns or determiners. While the relatives themselves are invariable for number, they are assumed to be singular or plural to agree with their antecedent and must be followed by the appropriate form of any finite that has different forms in singular and plural.

ˋðis iz ðə ˌman u ˌwonts tə ˌsiː ju.
ˋðiːz ə ðə ˌmen u ˌwont tə ˌsiː ju.

The various pronominal relatives are described below.

huː (weak forms uː, hu, u) refers to persons or to personified animals or things. It is used only as the subject of its verb and occurs in both defining and non-defining clauses.

ˋðat s ðə ˌgəːl u ˌdid it !   iz ˈðat ðə ˈman u ˈkoːld ˊjestədi ?
mai ˇfaːðə, hu z ˈniəli ˇeiti, ˈlivz in ˌlʌndən.

huːm (occasional weak forms hum, um) is the oblique form of huː, and is used as a direct or prepositional object. It is found only in literary English or in ceremonious speech.

ˋðat s ðə ˌman hum ai ˌsoː.   iz ˈðat ðə ˈman tə ˈhuːm ju ˊspouk ?
mai ˇfaðə, huːm ju l ˈmiːt tə ˌmoru, ˈlivz in ˌlʌndən.

witʃ (no weak form) refers to animals and things. It serves as either subject or object. While ðət is usually preferred in defining clauses, witʃ is always used in non-defining ones.

iz ˈðat ðə wʌn witʃ ˊbrouk ?   ˋðat s ðə ˌbuk witʃ ai v ˋred.
mai ˇkaː, witʃ ˈjuːʒuəli ˈrʌnz veri ˌwel, iz ˈgiviŋ ˋtrʌbl ˌnau.
ˈðis ˌbuk, witʃ ai ˈboːt fər ə ˌpaund, iz ˌwəːθ ˋtuː paundz ˌnau.

The antecedent of witʃ may be a whole clause instead of a noun or determiner; in that case it functions more like a conjunction.

ai ˈsed ˌnʌθiŋ, witʃ ˈmeid im ˈstil ˌmoːr ˌaŋgri.
hi ˈsed it wəz ˋreiniŋ, witʃ ai ˈdidn̩t biˌliːv.

ðat (weak form ðət, which is the only pronunciation used in connected speech) may refer to either persons or things. It is used only in defining clauses, where it is usually preferred to witʃ, but not to huː, except in the contexts described below. It is usually omitted when it is the object of its clause. Examples:

iz ˈðis ðə ˈpaːsl̩ ðət əˈraivd ðis ˊmoːniŋ ?
ˈʃou mi ðə ˈboi ðət ˈwʌn ðə ˈfəːst ˌpraiz.
iz ˈðis ðə ˈpaːsl̩ (ðət) ai ˈsoː on ðə ˊteibl̩ ðis ˈmoːniŋ ?
ai ˈwont tə ˈtoːk tə ðə ˈboi (ðət) ju ˌpʌniʃt ˌjestədi.
iz ˈðis ðə ˈbuk (ðət) ju wə riˈfəːriŋ tu ?
ˈintrəˈdjuːs mi tə ðə ˈman (ðət) ju ˈhad ˋdinə wið ˌlaːst ˌnait.

When the antecedent is a person and the relative is the subject of its clause, many speakers prefer to use ðət rather than huː in the following contexts:

a. After precursory it (§232).

ɪt wəz ɪz ˈwaif ðət ˌkept ɪm ˌgouɪŋ.

ɪt s ðə ˈraudɪ ˌpiːpl̩ ðət ˌkoːz oːl ðə ˌtrʌbl̩.

b. After a superlative.

hɪ z ðə 'best ˈfutboːlə ðət s 'evə ˈpleid fər əs.

c. After determiners expressing uniqueness or totality.

ju ə ðɪ 'ounli ˈpəːsn̩ ðət ˈwount əˌgriː tu ɪt.

ə 'ðiːz 'oːl ðə ˈboiz ðət əv 'təːnd ˈʌp təˈdei?

325 Choice of pronominal relative. In order to show clearly the different ways in which pronominal relatives and their substitutes are used, the following classified sets of simple sentences are given for comparison.

Defining Clauses.

Except in the first pair of examples below, most speakers prefer the second of each pair, and usually omit the word ðət in those cases where it is shown in brackets.

1. When the antecedent is a person.

Subject :   ˈðis iz ðə ˌman u ˌsoː ju.
              ˈðis iz ðə ˌman ðət ˌsoː ju.

Object :   ˈðis iz ðə ˌman hum ju ˌsoː.
              ˈðis iz ðə ˌman (ðət) ju ˌsoː.

Prep. Obj.:   ˈðis iz ðə ˌman tə huːm ai ˌgeiv it.
              ˈðis iz ðə ˌman (ðət) ai ˌgeiv it tu.

2. When the antecedent is a thing.

Subject :   ˈðis iz ðə ˌkaː witʃ ˌbrouk ˌdaun.
              ˈðis iz ðə ˌkaː ðət ˌbrouk ˌdaun.

Object :   ˈðis iz ðə ˌkaː witʃ wi ˌboːt.
              ˈðis iz ðə ˌkaː (ðət) wi ˌboːt.

Prep. Obj.:   ˈðis iz ðə ˌkaːr in witʃ wi ˌkeim.
              ˈðis iz ðə ˌkaː (ðət) wi ˌkeim in.

Non-defining Clauses.

These are usually avoided in spoken English, being replaced by other constructions such as those shown as the second example of each of the following pairs.

1. When the antecedent is a person.

Subject:

    mai ˅niːs, hu 'met ju ˌjestədi, 'livz in ˌlʌndən.

    ju ri'membə mai ˙niːs ˙met ju ʹjestədi?　ʃI 'livz in ˌlʌndən.

Object:

    mai ˅niːs, hum ju 'met ˌjestədi, 'livz in ˌlʌndən.

    ju ri'membə ˙miːtiŋ mai 'niːs ʹjestədi?　ʃI 'livz in ˌlʌndən.

Prepositional Object:

    mai ˅niːs, tə huːm ju wə ˋspiːkiŋ dʒʌst ˌnau, 'livz in ˌlʌndən.

    ai 'soː ju ˙spiːkiŋ tə mai ˋniːs dʒʌst ˌnau.　ʃI 'livz in ˌlʌndən.

2. When the antecedent is a thing.

Subject:

    mai ˅haus, witʃ əz 'dʒʌst bin ˌdekəreitid, ˌluks 'veri ˌnais.

    mai ˌhaus əz 'dʒʌst bin ˌdekəreitid ənd ˌluks 'veri ˌnais.

Object:

    mai ˅haus, witʃ ai v 'dʒʌst ˌmodərnaizd, iz 'veri ˌkʌmfətəbļ.

    ai v 'dʒʌst ˋmodənaizd mai ˌhaus, ənd it s 'veri ˌkʌmfətəbļ.

Prepositional Object:

    mai 'njuː ˌhaus, witʃ ai v 'dʒʌst ˅muːvd intu, iz 'tuː ˌsmoːl.

    ai v 'dʒʌst ˙muːvd intə mai 'njuː ˌhaus, ənd 'faind it ˙tuː ˌsmoːl.

3. When the antecedent is a clause.

    ai v ˋbroukən it, witʃ iz ə ˋnjuːsņs.

    'wot ə ˌnjuːsņs!　ai v ˋbroukən it!

326　The comparative relative.　In cases where the idea of comparison or similarity is introduced into the main clause by the use of either of the determiners ðə seim or sʌtʃ, the relatives huː, huːm (referring to persons) or ðət (referring to persons or things) are replaced by az (weak form əz). This rule applies irrespective of whether the determiner is functioning pronominally or adjectivally. Unlike the true pronominal relatives, əz is never omitted when it is the object of its clause. The following pairs of examples show the substitution of əz for other relatives.

Pronominal Determiner.

ðə 'membəz hu ˌvoutid ə 'ðouz u ə'griː wið əs.

ðə 'membəz hu ˌvoutid ə 'sʌtʃ əz ə'griː wið əs.

ðə 'piːpl̩ hu v ˌkʌm ə ðə 'wʌnz (hum) ju ˈsoː 'jestədi.

ðə 'piːpl̩ hu v ˌkʌm ə ðə 'seim əz ju ˈsoː 'jestədi.

ðə 'buks ai ˈwont ə 'ðouz (ðət) ju kən ˌspeə.

ðə 'buks ai ˈwont ə 'sʌtʃ əz ju kən ˌspeə.

Adjectival Determiner.

'oːl ðə ˈvizitəz u d 'steid ˈon wə 'hʌd|d ˈraund ðə ˌfaiə.

'sʌtʃ ˈvizitəz əz əd 'steid ˈon wə 'hʌd|d ˈraund ðə ˌfaiə.

'ðis ˌizn̩t ðə ˌbʌs (ðət) wi ˌtuk ˌjestədi.

'ðis ˌizn̩t ðə ˌseim ˌbʌs əz wi ˌtuk ˌjestədi.

'let mi ˈhav 'eni ˈbuks (ðət) ju kən ˌspeə.

'let mi ˈhav sʌtʃ ˈbuks əz ju kən ˌspeə.

Notice also such constructions as (*or* constructions such as) the following:

'teik it, ˌsʌtʃ əz it ˌiz.   wi 'pikt 'ʌp ˌsʌtʃ əz ðə ˌwəː.

327 Adjectival relatives.   The relatives **wot, witʃ** and **huːz** may be used adjectivally.   The first of these was dealt with in §323, and as **witʃ** is used adjectivally only in a very formal style it need not be considered here.

huːz (weak forms **uːz, huz, uz**) normally refers to possession by persons.   It is used in both defining and non-defining clauses.

'ðat s ðə ˌman uːz ˌhaus wi wə ˌlukiŋ at dʒʌs ˈnau.

iz ðər 'enibodi ˈhiə huz 'neim ˈhazn̩ bin 'koːld?

hi z 'oːlwiz ˌkwor|iŋ wið ˌpiːpl̩ uz ai,diəz ˌdifə frəm iz ˌoun.

mai 'faːðə, huz 'houm iz in ˌlʌndən, iz 'spendiŋ ə ˈwiːk ˌhiə.

mai 'sistə, huz 'dog ju ˈsoː ˌjestədi, iz 'fond əv ˌanim|z.

Sometimes, when it is desired to avoid a clumsy construction, **huːz** is used for possession by things.

ai 'laik tə ˈriːd ˈbuks uz 'oːθəz ˈnou ðeə 'sʌbdʒikt.

This avoids the awkward:

ai 'laik tə ˈriːd ˈbuks ði 'oːθəz əv witʃ 'nou ðeə 'sʌbdʒikt.

It is often preferable, however, to use a prepositional phrase instead of a relative clause, as shown in the following pairs of examples:

ðə 'dog uz ˈleg z ˌbroukən iz ˈfoluiŋ əs.

ðə 'dog wið ðə ˙broukən ˌleg z ˈfoluiŋ əs.

ai 'sliːp in ə ˙ruːm uz 'winduz ˙luk ˙on tə ðə ˈstriːt.

ai 'sliːp in ə ˙ruːm wið 'winduz ˙lukiŋ ˙on tə ðə ˈstriːt.

328 Adverbial relatives. The relatives weə*, wen and wai have an adverbial function. Their antecedents are nouns indicating place, time or cause, respectively.

weə*, referring to place, used in both defining and non-defining clauses.

'ðis iz ðə ˙haus weər ai wəz ˌbɔːn.

ðə ˈsekəndri ˌskuːl, weər ai 'juːst tə ˌtiːtʃ, iz 'ouvə ˌðeə.

wen, referring to time, used in both defining and non-defining clauses.

'ðat wəz ðə ˙jiə wen ai 'went tu əˈmerikə.

wi l disˈkʌs it in ði ˈintəvl, wen ðə l bi 'les ˈnoiz.

wai, referring to cause, used only in defining clauses.

ˈðat s ðə ˌriːzn̩ wai ʃi riˈfjuːzd tə ˈkʌm.

The above three connectives and **hau** are also used in a similar structure, in which the antecedent is omitted.

ˈðis iz ˙weər ai wəz ˌbɔːn.

ˈðat wəz ˙wen ai ˈwent tu əˈmerika.

ˈðat s ˌwai ʃi riˈfjuːzd tə ˈkʌm.

ˈðis iz ˌhau it ʃud bi ˌdʌn.

In such cases the connective takes a partial stress, and might be better classed as a conjunctive (§318) than as a relative.

H. Interjections and Exclamations

329 Interjections. These are words, having no syntactical relation to the sentence, used to express emotion. Some of the commonest are shown below and, as they naturally depend greatly on intonation for their meaning, they are classified by tunes (§§37–9). The feelings suggested by the various tunes are roughly as follows:

I   Suprise, or a query.
II   A reaction that is definitely approving or disapproving, according to the word used.
III   A hesitant or apologetic reaction.
IV   A more colourful reaction, which may be either arch or enthusiastic, according to the situation.

I	′wel !	′wot !	in′diːd !	⁻hʌ‚lou !
II	‵ou !	hu‵rei !	‵nonsn̩s !	'ou ‚nonsn̩s !
	‵aː !	in‵diːd!	‵fansi !	'wot ə ‚piti !
	‵wel !	'wel ‚wel !		'wel wel ‚wel !
III	ᵛaː !	ᵛou !	ᵛwel !	
IV	^ou !	^fansi !	in^diːd !	‚wot ə ^piti !
	^aː !	⁻ai ^sei !		

The following are used more particularly by women.

II	‵gudnis !	⁻ou ‚diə !	⁻diə ‚miː !	'wel ai ‚nevə !
	‵greiʃəs !	⁻ou ‚mai !		
IV	⁻ou ^diə !	'ou ‚ˌmai !	′diə ^miː !	⁻ou ^boðə !

The following are used more particularly by men.

II	'dʒoli ‚gud !	'bles mai ‚soul !
III	⁻nou ‚fiə !	
IV	′ou ^loːd !	′gud ^loːd !

In addition to the above an indefinite number of exclamations, both facetious and violent, are to be heard in the speech of educated persons.

330 Exclamatory sentences. These fall into two main types, which are distinguished by their structural differences.

Type 1.

These begin with an exclamatory **hau** or **wot**, and use a Tune II or IV. Preference is shown for Tune II in exclamations expressing regret or disgust and for Tune IV in exclamations of pleasure ; both kinds usually have either a high prehead (§34) or a rising head (§46).

hau is used before adjectives not qualifying a noun, and before adverbs :

II	ˉhau ʌnˎpleznt !	ˊhau ˎbadli ʃi ˏspiːks !
	ˊhau disˎgʌstiŋ !	ˉhau ˎoːkwəd ju ˏaː !
IV	ˉhau ⌃nais !	ˊhau ⌃gud əv ju !
	ˊhau ik⌃saitiŋ !	ˉhau ⌃kwikli ju ˏwəːk !

wot is used before nouns that are uncountables, and before countables in the plural. **wot ə** is used before countables in the singular. In all cases the noun may be qualified by a preceding adjective :

II	ˉwot ə ˏnjuːsns !	ˉwot ˊnaːsti ˎweðə !
	ˉwot ə ˎʃeim !	ˊwot ə ˎʃeim !
IV	ˉwot ˊlʌvli ˏflauəz ðouz ˏaː !	
	ˊwot ə ˊnais ⌃gaːdn̩ ju v ˏgot !	

Type 2.

These begin with a front-shifted adverbial. This is usually an adverbial particle, but it is often supplemented by an adverbial phrase of place or direction. These sentences may take the form of either statements or imperatives. In the latter case they generally express either good-humoured abruptness or mock severity. The nuclear tone is usually a lowered Tone I, and this is preceded by a rising tone on any preceding words that require sentence stress.

The following structural variations should be noticed.

If the subject is a personal pronoun, it is placed before the verb :

ˊhiə ʃi ˏkʌmz !	ˊof ju ˏgou !
ˊðeə ðei ˏgou !	ˊin ju ˏdʒʌmp !

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If the subject is not a personal pronoun, it is placed after the verb:

> ′hiə kʌmz ðə ˌman !   ə′wei went ðə ′houl ˌkraud !
> ′bak keim ði ˌʌðəz !   ′of gouz ðə ˌplein !

If the adverbial particle is accompanied by a further adverbial element, the former is placed at the beginning of the sentence while the latter generally occupies its usual position at the end:

> ′of ðei ′ran tə ˌskuːl !   ə′wei ðei ′went tə ðə ˌsteiʃn !

But in a more literary construction the whole of the adverbial may take the front-shifted position:

> ′of tə ′skuːl ðei ˌran !   ə′wei tə ðə ′steiʃn ðei ˌwent !

A substitute imperative is sometimes formed using the preposition **wið** after an adverbial particle:

> ə`wei wið ju !     `aut ˌwið it !   ′of wið iz ˌʃəːt !

Sentence Structure

TENSE TABLES

331 Sentence pattern formula. The established formula for showing basic word order in the sentence is S — V — O (Subject —Verb—Object). This is often amplified to S — v — V — O (Subject—auxiliary verb—Principal Verb—Object), with the use when necessary of C (Complement) and A (Adverbial). Adhering to the same principle this system can easily be adapted to show details of tense structure by using symbols having the following meanings :

$$S = \text{Subject}$$
$$f = \text{Conjugating finite}$$
$$v = \text{Conjugating verbal}$$
$$V = \text{Specific verbal}$$
$$F = \text{Specific finite}$$
$$O = \text{Object}$$

The relative positions of the symbols for subject and conjugating finite will indicate whether the sentence is a statement or a question, but it is also desirable to indicate the presence or absence of negation. This can be done by means of the following amplifications of the symbol for the conjugating finite :

$$af = \text{Affirmative conjugating finite}$$
$$nf = \text{Negative conjugating finite}$$

Using these symbols the following arrangements will represent the various forms of the sentence.

Affirmative	S — af — (v) — V — (O, C, A)
Interrogative	af — S — (v) — V — (O, C, A)
Negative	S — nf — (v) — V — (O, C, A)
Interrogative-negative	nf — S — (v) — V — (O, C, A)
Anomalous affirmative	S — F — (O, C, A)

The tables in the next four sections give examples of the basic affirmative, interrogative, negative and interrogative-negative structures of each of the twelve active and eight passive tenses of the verb, while §§336–7 show the anomalous conjugation. The numbering of the tenses corresponds to that given in §209. The letter A prefixed to a tense number means that the tense is in the active voice, while the letter P indicates that it is in the passive. For practical reasons all parts of the sentence that follow the specific verbal are lumped together under the head O, C, A.

332 The affirmative. This is widely regarded as the basic sentence structure, though it might be difficult to find a logical reason for this, as a statement is frequently a reply to a question, and questions are usually followed by a statement containing the information asked for. In affirmative statements the subject precedes all verbal forms and (except in Tenses A1 and A2) is followed immediately by an affirmative conjugating finite.

Tense No.	S	af	v	V	O, C, A
A 1	(See §336)				
A 2	(See §336)				
A 3	ʃi	məs		ˈteik	ˋðiːz.
A 4	ju	v		ˋfiniʃt	ðə ˌbuk.
A 5	ʃi	d		ˋmendid	it.
A 6	it	ˈmait	əv	biˈlɔŋd	tə ˋdʒon.
A 7	hi	z		ˋlisniŋ	tə mi.
A 8	ˈðat	wəz		ˋhəːtiŋ	ju.
A 9	ðei	ˈʃud	bi	ˋraitiŋ	ˌnau.
A10	ai	v	bin	ˋθiŋkiŋ	əbaut it.
A11	ˈdʒon	əd	bin	ˋtoːkiŋ	tə ðəm.
A12	ðei	l	əv bin	ˈəːniŋ	�̬sʌmθiŋ.
P 1	ˈðat	s		ˈriəlaizd	bai ˋevriwʌn.
P 2	ðei	wər		ˈoːdəd	tə ˌliːv
P 3	it	kən	bi	ˈpakt	in ˌhiə.
P 4	ju	v	bin	ˋrobd.	
P 5	ˈðouz	əd	bin	fəˋgotn̩.	
P 6	ʃi	d	əv bin	ˋmist.	
P 7	hi	z	biːiŋ	ˋkwestʃn̩d	əbaut it.
P 8	ʃi	wəz	biːiŋ	ˈtoːt	tə ˌswim.

Intonation and Stressing.

It will be noticed that the nuclear tone is either Tone II, Tone III or Tone IIID, and that it falls either on the specific verbal or on the object or adverbial.   The affirmative finites are unstressed except in two instances where stress is needed for semantic reasons.

333   The interrogative. This is formed by placing an affirmative conjugating finite before the subject instead of after it, as in affirmative statements.   In the case of Tenses A1 and A2 the specific finite used in the affirmative (see §336) is replaced by the infinitive of the same verb, and one of the affirmative conjugating finites **duː**, **dʌz**, or **did** is placed before the subject.

Tense No.	af	S	v	V	O, C, A
A 1	dəz	ˈdʒon		˙driŋk	ˈkofi ?
A 2	did	ðei		ˈsiː	əs ?
A 3	məst	ʃi		ˈteik	ˈðiːz ?
A 4	həv	ju		ˈfiniʃt	ðə ˙buk ?
A 5	həd	ʃi		ˈmendid	it ?
A 6	ˈmait	it	əv	biˈloŋd	tə ˈdʒon ?
A 7	iz	i		ˈlisniŋ	tə mi ?
A 8	wəz	ˈðat		ˈhəːtiŋ	ju ?
A 9	ˈʃud	ðei	bi	ˈraitiŋ	˙nau ?
A10	həv	ju	bin	ˈθiŋkiŋ	əbaut it ?
A11	həd	ˈdʒon	bin	ˈtoːkiŋ	tə ðəm ?
A12	wil	ðei	əv bin	ˈəːniŋ	˙eniθiŋ ?
P 1	iz	ˈðat		˙riəlaizd	bai ˈevriwʌn ?
P 2	wə	ðei		ˈoːdəd	tə ˈliːv ?
P 3	kən	it	bi	ˈpakt	in ˈhiə ?
P 4	həv	ju	bin	ˈrobd ?	
P 5	həd	ˈðouz	bin	fəˈgotn̩ ?	
P 6	wəd	ʃi	əv bin	ˈmist ?	
P 7	iz	i	biːiŋ	ˈkwestʃn̩d	əbaut it ?
P 8	wəz	ʃi	biːiŋ	ˈtoːt	tə ˈswim ?

Intonation and Stressing.

The nuclear tone is now Iʜ.   Except for the two that are stressed for semantic reasons, the finites are shown unstressed.   They would be given high level stress if it were desired to infuse a feeling of greater interest into the questions.   (See §343.)

334 The negative. This has the same structure as the affirmative, the only change being the substitution of the negative finite for the affirmative one, except in Tenses A1 and A2, where the specific finite that is used in the affirmative (see §336) is replaced by the infinitive of the same verb, while one of the negative conjugating finites **dount, dʌznt** or **didnt** is placed immediately after the subject. Other exceptions to this rule will be found in §§155, 160 (tə biː), 171 (juːst tə), 195*b* (mei) and 203*b* (mait).

Tense No.	S	nf	v	V	O, C, A
A 1	ˈdʒon	˙dʌznt		ˎdriŋk	ˌkofi.
A 2	ðei	ˈdidn̩t		ˋsiː	əs.
A 3	ʃi	ˈmʌsn̩t		˙teik	˅ðiːz.
A 4	ju	ˈhavn̩t		ˋfiniʃt	ðə ˌbuk.
A 5	ʃi	ˈhadn̩t		ˋmendid	it.
A 6	it	ˈmait not əv		biˋloŋd	tə ˌdʒon.
A 7	hi	ˈisn̩t		ˋlisniŋ	tə mi.
A 8	ˋðat	ˌwozn̩t		ˌhəːtiŋ	ju.
A 9	ðei	ˈʃudn̩t	bi	˙raitiŋ	˅nau.
A10	ai	ˈhavn̩t	bin	ˋθiŋkiŋ	əbaut it.
A11	ˈdʒon	˙hadn̩t	bin	ˋtoːkiŋ	tə ðəm.
A12	ðei	ˈwount	əv bin	˅əːniŋ	˙eniθiŋ.
P 1	ðat	ˈizn̩t		˙riəlaizd	bai ˅evriwʌn.
P 2	ðei	ˈwəːnt		˙oːdəd	tə ˅liːv.
P 3	it	ˈkaːnt	bi	˙pakt	in ˅hiə.
P 4	ju	ˌhavn̩t	bin	ˌrobd.	
P 5	ˋdouz	ˌhadn̩t	bin	fəˌgotn̩.	
P 6	ʃi	ˈwudn̩t	əv bin	˅mist.	
P 7	hi	ˈizn̩t	biːiŋ	˅kwestʃn̩d əbaut it.	
P 8	ʃi	ˈwozn̩t	biːiŋ	˙toːt	tə ˅swim.

In a formal written style and in very formal or emphatic speech the negative finite may be split into its component parts, i.e., affirmative finite + **not**, the latter word taking the stress (less consistently in British than in American English, where this formal structure is more favoured than it is in Britain).

Intonation and Stressing.

Tune III occurs more frequently than it did in the affirmative. All the negative finites are stressed.

Other methods of introducing negation into statements will be found in §§351–7.

335 The interrogative-negative.   This has the same form as the interrogative, the only change being the substitution of the negative finite for the affirmative one.

While this form of the sentence is rare in the written style, it is much more common in speech than is generally realized.   Its neglect in most text-books is unjustified, for in lively conversation as many as a third of the general questions may contain a negative finite.   It is widely used for making questions rhetorical, protesting or merely indicative of the speaker's attitude, and it is therefore recommended to the student's attention.

Tense No.	nf	S	v	V	O, C, A
A 1	'dʌznt	˙dʒon		'driŋk	′kofi ?
A 2	'didn̩t	ðei		′siː	əs ?
A 3	'mʌsn̩t	ʃi		˙teik	′ðiːz ?
A 4	'havn̩t	ju		′finiʃt	ðə ˙buk ?
A 5	'hadn̩t	ʃi		′mendid	it ?
A 6	'maitn̩t	it	əv	bi˙loŋd	tə ′dʒon ?
A 7	'iznt	i		′lisniŋ	tə mi ?
A 8	'wozn̩t	˙ðat		′həːtiŋ	ju ?
A 9	'ʃudn̩t	ðei	bi	′raitiŋ	˙nau ?
A10	'havn̩t	ju	bin	′θiŋkiŋ	əbaut it ?
A11	'hadn̩t	'dʒon	bin	′toːkiŋ	tə ðəm ?
A12	'wount	ðei	əv bin	′əːniŋ	˙eniθiŋ ?
P 1	'iznt	˙ðat		'riəlaizd	bai ′evriwʌn ?
P 2	'wəːnt	ðei		˙oːdəd	tə ′liːv ?
P 3	'kaːnt	it	bi	˙pakt	in ′hiə ?
P 4	'havn̩t	ju	bin	′robd ?	
P 5	'hadn̩t	˙ðouz	bin	fə′gotn̩ ?	
P 6	'wudn̩t	ʃi	əv bin	′mist ?	
P 7	'iznt	i	biːiŋ	′kwestʃn̩d	əbaut it ?
P 8	'wozn̩t	ʃi	biːiŋ	˙toːt	tə ′swim ?

In very formal speech the subject is occasionally preceded by an affirmative finite and followed by not (e.g., dəz 'dʒon ˙not ˙drink ′kofi ?), but most good speakers feel that this style is stilted and unnatural.

Intonation and Stressing.

The intonation is the same as for the interrogative, but all the finites are stressed.

Other methods of introducing negation into questions will be found in §§358–63.

336 The anomalous conjugation. In this structure the tense is indicated by a finite of the specific verb instead of by the usual conjugating finite. Though it is used only in the imperative and in Tenses A1 and A2, all these are of such frequent occurrence that the structure is still important.

Formerly in general use in all four forms of the sentence in these two tenses and in the negative imperative as well as the affirmative, it is now restricted to the unemphatic imperative and the unemphatic affirmative form of Tenses A1 and A2 and to certain special sentence arrangements that are described in §§349, 356 and 363. Its most common uses are in the imperative, described in §236, and in the Present and Past Tenses of the Aspect of Accomplishment (Tenses A1 and A2), set forth below.

337 Anomalous affirmative. This occurs only in the unemphatic affirmative form of Tenses A1 and A2.

Tense No.	S	F	O	A
A 1	ˈdʒon	ˈdriŋks	ˋkofi	ət ˏnait.
A 1	hi	ˈlaiks	ˋoːl əv ðəm	ˏnau.
A 1	ðei	ˈgrou	ˊflauəz	in ðə ˏgaːdn̩.
A 1	wi ˋoːl	ˏnou	ði ˏaːnsə	tə ˏðat.
A 2	ðə ˈgəːlz	˙soː	ˋmeəri	in ˏtaun.
A 2	it	ˈmeid	˙sens	tə ˅miː.

ANALYSIS OF STRUCTURES

338 Variant sentence patterns. The form of the sentence, whether in affirmative, interrogative, negative or interrogative-negative, does not always follow the normal pattern shown in §§332–5. For instance, Tenses A1 and A2 have the exceptional structure shown in the previous section, questions do not always have an interrogative structure, and negation can be expressed without using a negative finite. Differences in meaning may also be expressed by changes of stress and intonation.

These variations in the sentence pattern will be examined in the following sections, each form of the sentence being taken in turn.

AFFIRMATION

339 Variations in the affirmative. It has been shown in §332 that ordinary affirmation is expressed in all tenses except A1 and A2 by placing an affirmative finite after the subject, the finite being nearly always unstressed.

Affirmative statements may, however, be treated in other ways, involving changes in the stress and intonation patterns, and in particular in the form of some of the conjugators, while in Tenses A1 and A2 a normal structure is sometimes employed instead of the anomalous one described in §§336–7.

The most usual change in the stress and intonation pattern involves using the strong form of the conjugating finite and giving it a strong stress. This may take either of two forms, one of which merely makes the statement emphatic while the other gives it a sense of contradiction.

340 Emphasis. When it is desired to emphasize the general truth of an affirmative statement, perhaps also emphasizing some particular idea that it contains, a high level stress is placed on the conjugating finite. In Tenses A1 and A2 the specific finite used in the unemphatic affirmative (§337) is replaced by the infinitive of the specific verb while the appropriate conjugating finite in its stressed form is inserted between the subject and the infinitive. The nuclear tone, which falls later than the finite, may be a Tone II, III or IIID.

Tense No.	S	af	v	V	O, C, A
A 1	ˌdʒon	ˈdʌz		˙driŋk	ˌkofi.
A 3	ʃi	ˈmʌs		˙teik	ˇðiːz
A 5	ʃi	ˈhad		ˇmendid	it.
A 7	hi	ˈiz		ˇlisniŋ	tə mi.
A 9	ðei	ˈʃud	bi	ˎraitiŋ	ˌnau.
A11	ˌdʒon	ˈhad	bin	ˇtoːkiŋ	tə ðəm.
P 1	ðat	ˈiz		˙riəlaizd	bai ˎevriwʌn.
P 3	it	ˈkan	bi	˙pakt	in ˎhiə.
P 5	ˌðouz	ˈhad	bin	fəˎgotn̩.	
P 7	hi	ˈiz	biːiŋ	ˇkwestʃn̩d əbaut it.	

341 Contradiction. If the emphatic affirmative is intended as a contradiction of a previous statement or the reversal of a previous negative attitude, a Tone II is used on the conjugating finite, its prominence being enhanced by the weakening or lowering in pitch of all the other stresses. If it is desired to give the impression of complete certainty, all the succeeding stresses are low level ones, which makes the Tone II on the finite the nuclear tone of the sentence. In cases of less certainty, or to soften the statement for politeness' sake, one of the succeeding stresses may take a low rising tone, thus converting the nucleus into a Tone IIID.

Tense No.	S	af	v	V	O, C, A
A 2	ðei	ˈdid		ˌdriŋk	ˌkofi.
A 4	ju	ˈhav		ˌfiniʃt	ðə ˌbuk.
A 6	it	ˈmait	əv	biˌloŋd	tə ˌdʒon.
A 8	ˌðat	ˈwoz		ˌhəːtiŋ	ju.
A10	ai	ˈhav	bin	ˌθiŋkiŋ	əbaut it.
A12	ðei	ˈwil	əv bin	ˌəːniŋ	sʌmθiŋ.
P 2	ðei	ˈwəːr		ˌoːdəd	tə ˌliːv.
P 4	ju	ˈhav	bin	ˌrobd.	
P 6	ʃi	ˈwud	əv bin	ˌmist.	
P 8	ʃi	ˈwoz	biːiŋ	ˌtoːt	tə ˌswim.

INTERROGATION

342 Kinds of question. Questions fall into two main classes, which differ in both structure and intonation. They are:

1. *General Questions*, which begin with a conjugating finite and usually take Tone I as their nucleus. They are the ordinary interrogative forms of the sentence, and can be answered by **jes** or **nou**. They are dealt with in §§333 and 335.

2. *Special Questions*, which begin with an interrogative word and usually take Tone II as their nucleus. They need a specific answer and cannot be answered by **jes** or **nou**. They are dealt with in §§345–9.

Alternative Questions, which contain one of the two conjunctions **oː*** or **noː*** and present two or more alternatives from which the hearer is asked to make a selection or an identification, form a

subsidiary class. They may be formed from either General or Special Questions. (See §350.)

343 Emphatic general questions. In the examples of the interrogative given in §333 the large majority of the conjugating finites are shown unstressed and in their weak forms. In some situations this pattern may suggest a certain perfunctoriness or lack of interest on the part of the speaker. This can be eliminated by using the strong forms of the finites and giving them a full high level stress while leaving the rest of the sentence more or less unmodified except for certain stress adjustments.

Tense No.	af	S	v	V	O, C, A
A 2	'did	ðei		'siː	əs ?
A 4	'hav	ju		'finiʃt	ðə 'buk ?
A 6	'mait	it	əv	bi'lond	tə 'dʒon ?
A 8	'woz	'ðat		'həːtiŋ	ju ?
A10	'hav	ju	bin	'θiŋkiŋ	əbaut it ?
A12	'wil	ðei	əv bin	'əːniŋ	'eniθiŋ ?
P 2	'wəː	ðei		'oːdəd	tə 'liːv ?
P 4	'hav	ju	bin	'robd ?	
P 6	'wud	ʃi	əv bin	'mist ?	
P 8	'woz	ʃi	biːiŋ	'toːt	tə 'swim ?

344 Rhetorical general questions. These have something of the nature of the contradictions mentioned in §341. They are used to express surprise or incredulity in the face of some affirmative statement that has been made. They differ from emphatic general questions in that the nuclear Tone I is placed on the finite at the beginning of the sentence while the rest of the question forms the rising tail.

Tense No.	af	S	v	V	O, C, A
A 1	'dʌz	'dʒon		'driŋk	'kofi ?
A 3	'mʌst	ʃi		'teik	'ðiːz ?
A 5	'had	ʃi		'mendid	it ?
A 7	'iz	i		'lisniŋ	tə mi ?
A 9	'ʃud	ðei	bi	'raitiŋ	'nau ?
A11	'had	'dʒon	bin	'toːkiŋ	tə ðəm ?

Tense No.	af	S	v	V	O, C, A
P 1	ˈiz	ˈðat		ˈriəlaizd	bai ˈevriwʌn ?
P 3	ˈkan	it	bi	ˈpakt	in ˈhiə ?
P 5	ˈhad	ˈðouz	bin	fəˈgotn̩ ?	
P 7	ˈiz	i	biːiŋ	ˈkwestʃn̩d	əbaut it ?

345 Special questions. An interrogative structure is used pro-
vided the interrogative word is not the subject of the sentence,
which means in effect that it may be an adverb or, in the active
voice only, the object of the verb. Examples:

Interrogative word as object or part thereof.

Tense No.	O	af	S	v	V
A 1	ˈwot	dəz	ˈdʒon		ˌdriŋk ?
A 2	ˈwitʃ	did	ˈmeəri		ˌwont ?
A 3	ˈhau meni	mei	ai		ˌteik ?
A 4	ˈwitʃ əv ðəm	əv	ju		ˌfiniʃt ?
A 5	ˈhuː(m)	əd	ʃi		ˌsiːn ?
A 6	ˈwot ˌels	kən	ðei	əv	iˌmadʒind ?
A 7	ˈwot	s	i		ˈduːiŋ ?
A 8	ˈhuː(m) ˌels	wə	ju		iksˌpektiŋ ?
A 9	ˈhau mʌtʃ	ʃəd	wi	bi	ˌjuːziŋ ?
A10	ˈwot	əv	ju	bin	ˈduːiŋ ?
A11	ˈwitʃ ˈbuks	əd	ðei	bin	ˌriːdiŋ ?
A12	ˈwot	l̩	ʃi	əv bin	ˈθiŋkiŋ ?

Interrogative word as adverb.

Tense No.	A	af	S	v	V
A 2	ˈhau ˈofn̩	did	ʃi		ˌrait ?
A 4	ˈhau ˈfaːr	əv	wi		ˌwoːkt ?
A 6	ˈwen	kəd	ai	əv	ˌkʌm ?
A 8	ˈweə	wə	ðei		ˌsteiln̩ ?
A10	ˈhau ˈwel	əz	i	bin	ˌwəːkiŋ ?
A12	ˈwai	ʃəd	ju	əv bin	ˈrʌniŋ ?
P 1	ˈwen	ə	ju		iksˌpektid ?
P 3	ˈweə	kəd	it	bi	ˈhidn̩ ?
P 5	ˈhau	əd	ðei	bin	ˌkukt ?
P 7	ˈwai	z	ʃi	biːiŋ	ˌskouldid ?

346 Special questions with statement structure. When the interrogative word that introduces Special Questions is (or is associated with) the subject of the sentence, a statement structure is used. Examples:

Tense No.	S	af	v	V	O, C, A
A 1	(See §349)				
A 2	(See §349)				
A 3	'hu: ˎels	məst		ˌli:v	ˌəːli ?
A 4	'witʃ əv ju	əv		ˈfiniʃt	ðə ˌbuk ?
A 5	'hu:	d		ˎmendid	it ?
A 6	'hau ˙meni	ǀ	əv	əˈraivd	oːlˎredi ?
A 7	'witʃ əv ju	ə		˙juːziŋ	ˈpens|z ?
A 8	'wot	wəz		ˎhəːtiŋ	ju ?
A 9	'witʃ ˙gəːl	ʃəd	bi	'gouiŋ	ˎnau ?
A10	'hu:	z	bin	ˎtoːkiŋ	əbaut it ?
A11	'witʃ ˙boi	əd	bin	ˎhelpiŋ	ju ?
A12	'hu:	kən	əv bin	˙iːtiŋ	ðə ˎkeik ?
P 1	'wot ˎels	iz		ˌnoun	əbaut it ?
P 2	'witʃ wʌn	wəz		ˎstoulṇ ?	
P 3	'hau ˙mʌtʃ	ǀ	bi	'pakt	in ˈhiə ?
P 4	'hu:	z	bin	˙oːdəd	tə ˎliːv ?
P 5	'hu: ˎels	əd	bin	fəˌgotṇ ?	
P 6	'hau ˙meni	ǀ	əv bin	˙sent	bai ˎnau ?
P 7	'hu:	z	biːiŋ	˙aːskt	tə ˎhelp ?
P 8	'wot	wəz	biːiŋ	ˈsed	əbaut it ?

347 Emphatic special questions. Emphasis is often added to Special Questions by placing the nuclear Tone II on the finite instead of on one of the more meaningful words (usually either the subject or the specific verbal) that come later in the sentence. This conveys the speaker's feeling that an unnecessary mystery is being made of the facts; alternatively, it may suggest impatience at being given irrelevant facts, e.g., ai 'nou ˙wot ˈwozṇt ˌdʌn, 'tel mi ˙wot ˈwoz ˌdʌn. In some cases, also, it may convey a contrast of tenses or of modals, e.g., ai 'nou ˙wot ˈʃud əv bin ˌdʌn, 'tel mi ˙wot ˈhaz bin ˌdʌn. The falling nuclear tone on the finite may be either high or low. When the interrogative word is (or forms part of) the subject there is no inversion of subject and finite.

The sentences below are modifications of some of the examples given in §§345–6.

Interrogative word as object or part thereof.

Tense No.	O	af	S	v	V
A 1	'wot	ˌdʌz	ˌdʒon		ˌdriŋk?
A 2	'witʃ	ˌdid	ˌmeəri		ˌwont?
A 4	'witʃ əv ðəm	ˋhav	ju		ˌfiniʃt?
A 6	'wot ˙els	ˋkan	ðei	əv	iˌmadʒind?
A 7	ˌwot	ˋiz	i		ˌduːiŋ?
A 9	'hau ˙mʌtʃ	ˌʃud	wi	bi	ˌjuːziŋ?

Interrogative word as adverb.

Tense No.	A	af	S	v	V
A 2	ˌhau ˌofn̩	ˋdid	ʃi		ˌrait?
A 6	ˌwen	ˋkud	ai	əv	ˌkʌm?
A10	'hau ˙wel	ˌhaz	i	bin	ˌwəːkiŋ?
P 3	'weə	ˌkud	it	bi	ˌhidn̩?
P 5	'hau	ˌhad	ðei	bin	ˌkukt?

Interrogative word as subject.

Tense No.	S	af	v	V	O, C, A
A 4	'witʃ əv ju	ˌhav		ˌfiniʃt	ðə ˌbuk?
A 5	ˌhuː	ˋhad		ˌmendid	it?
A 8	ˌwot	ˋwoz		ˌhəːtiŋ	ju?
A10	ˌhuː	ˋhaz	bin	ˌtoːkiŋ	əbaut it?
P 4	ˌhuː	ˋhaz	bin	ˌoːdəd	tə ˌliːv?
P 7	'huː	ˌiz	biːiŋ	ˌaːskt	tə ˌkʌm?

348   Rhetorical special questions.   When Special Questions are asked rhetorically in order to suggest surprise or dismay at something that has been said, the nuclear tone is changed to a Tone I and placed on the interrogative word, while the rest of the question becomes the rising tail of the tune. Again there is no inversion of subject and finite if the interrogative word is (or forms part of) the subject.

Interrogative word as object.

Tense No.	O	af	S	v	V
A 1	′wot	dəz	˙dʒon		˙driŋk?
A 4	′witʃ əv ðəm	əv	ju		˙finiʃt?
A 5	′huː(m)	əd	ʃi		˙siːn?
A 7	′wot	s	i		˙duːiŋ?
A 9	′hau ˙mʌtʃ	ʃəd	wi	bi	˙juːziŋ?
A11	′witʃ ˙buks	əd	ðei	bin	˙riːdiŋ?

Interrogative word as adverb.

Tense No.	A	af	S	v	V
A 2	′wen	did	i		ə˙raiv?
A 4	′hau ˙faːr	əv	wi		˙woːkt?
A12	′weə	ʃəd	ai	əv bin	˙sitiŋ?
P 1	′hau ˙suːn	ə	ju		iks˙pektid?
P 7	′wai	z	i	biːiŋ	˙skouldid?

Interrogative word as subject.

Tense No.	S	af	v	V	O, C, A
A 4	′hau ˙meni	əv		˙finiʃt	ðə ˙buk?
A 5	′huː	d		˙mendid	it?
A11	′witʃ ˙boi	əd	bin	˙helpiŋ	ju?
P 2	′huː	wəz		˙oːdəd	tə ˙liːv?
P 4	′wot	s	bin	˙stouln?	
P 7	′huː	z	biːiŋ	˙aːkst	tə ˙kʌm?

349 Anomalous interrogative. This occurs in Tenses A1 and A2 in a similar case to that explained in §346, i.e., when the interrogative word is (or forms part of) the subject of the sentence, and provided no negative finite is required. Examples:

Tense No.	S	F	O	A
A 1	′huː	˙driŋks	˙kofi	ət ˌnait?
A 1	′wot	˙koːziz	ðə ˌtaidz?	
A 1	′hau ˙meni əv ju	˙grou	ˈflauəz	in ðə ˌgaːdn̩?
A 1	′witʃ əv ju	˙nou	ði ˌaːnsə?	
A 2	′witʃ ˙gəːlz	˙soː	˙meəri	in ˌtaun?
A 2	′hau meni	˙keim		tə ðə ˌpaːti?

Emphatic Special Questions.

The type of emphasis referred to in §347 causes the above tenses to adopt the normal structure, since the conjugating finite is brought in to take the nuclear tone:

Tense No.	S	af	V	O	A
A 1	'wot	ˎdʌz	ˌkoːz	ðə ˌtaidz?	
A 1	'witʃ əv ju	ˎduː	ˌnou	ði ˌaːnsə?	
A 2	'witʃ ˈɡəːlz	ˎdid	ˌsiː	ˌmeəri	in ˌtaun?

Rhetorical Special Questions.

On the other hand, in the rhetorical questions described in §348 the conjugating finite is not required, and the anomalous structure is retained in these two tenses:

Tense No.	S	F	O	A
A 1	ˊhuː	ˈdriŋks ˈkofi		ət ˈnait?
A 1	ˊhau ˈmeni əv ju	ˈɡrou	ˈflauəz	in ðə ˈɡaːdn̩?
A 2	ˊhau meni	ˈkeim		tə ðə ˈpaːti?

350 Alternative questions.   These questions, which are defined in §342, present no structural complications, but do require special tonetic treatment.   They usually carry a rising tone on all the alternatives except the last, which takes a falling tone to indicate that it is the last alternative offered for consideration.   Examples:

iz i ət ˊhoum, oːr ət ði ˎofis?

wil ju ˌhav ˊhʌni, oː ˊdʒam, oː ˋmaːməˌleid?

d ju priˌfəː ˌtravliŋ bai ˊroud, ˊreil, ˊsiː oːr ˏeə?

If, however, it is desired to indicate that the alternatives mentioned do not necessarily constitute a complete series, but are open to additions, the last one mentioned, as well as the others, will have a rising tone:

iz i ət ˊhoum, oːr ət ði ˊofis . . .?

wil ju ˌhav ˊhʌni, oː ˊdʒam, oː ˊmaːməˈleid . . .?

Alternative Special Questions.

Most of the Special Questions may have a list of alternatives added to them to indicate the field from which the speaker expects the answer to come.   Examples:

'witʃ iz ðə ˌbetə, 'ðis oː ˋðat?
'wen ə ðei iks'pektiŋ ju, tə'dei oː təˌmoru?
'witʃ wʌn wəz ˌstoulņ, ðə 'big wʌn oː ðə ˌlitļ wʌn?
'huː ˈgot ðeə ˌfəːst, 'dʒon oː ˌmeəri?
'weər ļ i ˌbiː, ət 'houm, oːr ət ði ˌofis?

NEGATION

351   Vehicles of negation.   The introduction of negation into
a sentence by means of a negative conjugating finite was discussed
and exemplified in §§334–5.   There are, however, four other ways
in which negation may be added to a sentence.   They and their
symbols are:

nS = Negative Subject	nC = Negative Complement
nO = Negative Object	nA = Negative Adverbial

The expression of negation by any of the above vehicles instead
of by a negative finite has the effect of emphasizing the negative
idea, and it will be noticed in the examples given in the following
sections that they frequently take the nuclear tone of the sentence.

In each of these classes there are a few near-negative elements
which are subject to the same rules as the fully negative elements.

It is most important to realize that negation is not cumulative
in English, as it is in many other languages.   In other words, two
negative elements in the same clause do not reinforce the idea of
negation ; on the contrary, they cancel each other out and produce
a sort of affirmative.   One may therefore lay down the principle
that negative and near-negative elements in the sentence are nearly
always mutually exclusive.

This provides many pitfalls for students who are in the habit of
using cumulative negation in their own languages ; they need to
take great care not to use more than one type of negation or near-
negation in English to convey a negative or near-negative idea.
They must also avoid the temptation to think that the indefinite
partitive eni and its compounds contain in themselves a negative
element.   When asked questions like 'hau meni ˋbuks aː ðər on
ðə ˌteibļ? they are inclined to give a negative answer the form
ˋeni, instead of ˋnʌn.

352 Negative subjects. The words used as negative subjects are the pronominal determiners naiðə*, nʌn, noubodi, nouwʌn, nʌθiŋ, and the adjectival determiners naiðə*, nou, not ə, not ən followed by a noun or by certain other determiners.

Words used as near-negative subjects are the pronominal determiners eni, enibodi, eniwʌn, eniθiŋ preceded by haːdli or skeəsli, and expressions like not oːl, not evri, not evribodi, not evriwʌn, not evriθiŋ, not mʌtʃ, not meni, not ə litl̩, not ə fjuː. Examples:

Tense No.	nS	af	v	V	O, C, A
A 1	(See §356)				
A 2	(See §356)				
A 3	'not ˋevribodi	kən		ˌiːt	ˌfiʃ.
A 4	ˋnʌn əv ju	əv		ˌʌndəˌstud	ðə ˌlesn̩.
A 5	'nouwʌn	əd		ˋmendid	it.
A 6	'not ˋoːl əv it	kəd	əv	biˌloŋd	tə ˌdʒon.
A 7	'not ˋwʌn əv ju z			ˌlisniŋ	tə mi.
A 8	ˋnoubədi	wəz		ˌhəːtiŋ	ju.
A 9	ˋnou ˌkandidits	ʃəd	bi	ˌraitiŋ	ˌnau.
A10	'nouwʌn	z	bin	ˋθiŋkiŋ	əbaut it.
A11	'nʌn əv ˋʌs	əd	bin	ˌθretniŋ	ðəm.
A12	'noubodi	l̩	əv bin	inˋdʒoiiŋ	ðə ˌplei.
P 1	'not ˋmeni	ər		iksˌpektid	tə ˌdʒoin.
P 2	'nʌθiŋ	wəz		ˋheld	⌄bak.
P 3	'nou ˋmoː	kən	bi	'pakt	in ⌄hiə.
P 4	'not ˋmʌtʃ	əz	bin	ˌstouln̩.	
P 5	'noubodi	d	bin	fəˇgotn̩.	
P 6	'not ˇevriwʌn	kəd	əv bin	diˋpendid	əˌpon.
P 7	'nou ˈpriznəz	ə	biːiŋ	ri⌄liːst.	
P 8	'nʌn əv əs	wə	biːiŋ	ˋfoːst	tə ˌwəːk.

353 Negative objects. Most of the words used as negative and near-negative subjects are also used as objects in the tenses of the active voice:

Tense No.	S	af	v	V	nO
A 1	(See §356)				
A 2	(See §356)				
A 3	ʃi	niːd		'briŋ	'nʌθiŋ ⱽels.
A 4	ju	v		'finiʃt	'skeəsli `eni.
A 5	ʃi	d		'mendid	'nʌθiŋ ət `ɔːl.
A 6	it	kəd	əv	'satisfaid	`noubodi.
A 7	hi	z		'riː`raitiŋ	`nʌn əv it.
A 8	'ðat	wəz		`həːtiŋ	'haːdli `eniwʌn.
A 9	ju	ʃəd	bi	'raitiŋ	`nʌθiŋ.
A10	ðei	v	bin	'giviŋ	'nou ⱽtrʌbl̩.
A11	'dʒon	əd	bin	`driŋkiŋ	'haːdli ˌeniθiŋ.
A12	ðei	l	əv bin	'əːniŋ	`nʌθiŋ.

In the passive tenses the same words may be used as agents to indicate who performed the action.

Tense No.	S	af	v	V	n Agent
P 1	ju	ə		'θretn̩d	bai ˌnouwʌn.
P 2	hi	wəz		bi'liːvd	bai 'haːdli `enibodi.
P 3	ðei	l	bi	'wontid	bai ˌnʌn əv əs.
P 4	it	s	bin	'stʌdid	bai 'nouwʌn ⱽels.
P 5	ai	d	bin	fə'gotn̩	bai `noubodi.
P 6	wi	'mei	əv bin	`fraitn̩d	bai `nʌθiŋ.
P 7	ðei	ə	biːiŋ	'helpt	bai ˌnʌn əv əs.
P 8	ðə 'bel	wəz	biːiŋ	`rʌŋ	bai `noubodi.

For the treatment in the passive of verbs taking two objects, see §§378–81.

354 Negative complements. These occur after verbs of in-complete predication, and particularly after the verb tə biː. They are frequently to be found in the precursory ðeə* structure. Examples:

Tense No.	S	af	v	nC
A 1	(See §356)			
A 2	(See §356)			
A 3	ðə	l	bi	ˈnouwʌn ˇels.
A 4	ðə	z	bin	ˈnʌθiŋ ˇnjuː.
A 5	ðə	d	bin	ˈnou ˇrein.
A 6	ˋðat	ud	əv bin	ˌnou ˌnovǀti.

355 Negative adverbials. Such words as not, nevə*, not ət oːl, nouweə* are classed as negative adverbials, while seldəm, reəli, skeəsli, beəli, skeəsli evə*, haːdli, haːdli evə* are near-negative adverbials. The adverb not is usually confined to tenses in which finites of the verb tə biː are used and to the special cases mentioned in §§171, 195 and 203.

In the following examples notice the position of the negative adverbs, after the finite and before any verbals.

Tense No.	S	af	nA	v	V	O, C, A
A 1	(See §356)					
A 2	(See §356)					
A 3	ju	l	ˈbeəli		˙katʃ	ðə ˏbʌs.
A 4	ðei	v	ˈnevə		ˋsiːn	ˌsnou.
A 5	wi	d	ˈhaːdli evə		ˋmet	ðəm.
A 6	ai	ʃəd	ˈnevər	əv	ˋnoun	əbaut it.
A 7	hi	z	ˈnot		ˋlisniŋ	tə ju.
A 8	ʃi	wəz	ˈskeəsli		˙iːtiŋ	ˋeniθiŋ.
A 9	ðei	d	ˈhaːdli	bi	˙steiiŋ	ˏhiə.
P 1	ˌðat	s	ˈnot		˙setǀd	ət ˋoːl.
P 2	wi	wə	ˈreəli		˙aːskt	tə ˇstei.
P 3	it	kən	ˈhaːdli	bi	˙pakt	in ˏhiə.
P 4	hi	z	ˈseldəm	bin	˙meid	tə ˏweit.
P 5	ai	d	ˈnevə	bin	˙robd	biˇfoə.
P 6	ʃi	d	ˈskeəsli	əv bin	ˇmist.	

The negative adverb **nouweə***, being an adverb of place, follows the specific verbal, or the object if there is one:

Tense No.	S	af	V	O	nA
A 3	ai	kən	'faind	im	ˋnouweə.
A 7	wi	ə	'gouiŋ		ˋnouweər in pə͵tikjulə.

356 Anomalous negative. This occurs in Tenses A1 and A2 in statements in which the negation is expressed in some other way than by a negative finite, i.e., by a negative subject, object, complement or adverbial. Examples:

Negative Subject.

Tense No.	nS	F	O	A
A 1	'haːdli ˋenibodi	͵drinks	͵kofi	ət ͵nait.
A 1	ˋnʌθiŋ	sək͵siːdz		laik sək∨ses.
A 1	ˋnʌn əv ðəm	͵grou	͵flauəz	in ðə ͵gaːdn̩.
A 1	ˋnʌn əv ju	͵nou	ðə ͵lesn̩	͵propəli.
A 2	ˋnoubodi	͵soː	͵meəri	in ͵taun.
A 2	'haːdli ˋeniθiŋ	͵meid	͵sens	tə ͵miː.

Negative Object.

Tense No.	S	F	nO	A
A 1	'dʒon	˙driŋks	'haːdli ˋeniθiŋ	ət ͵nait.
A 1	hi	'laiks	ˋnʌn əv ðəm.	
A 1	ðei	'grou	ˋnou ͵flauəz	in ðə ͵gaːdn̩.
A 1	wi	'nou	ˋnoubodi	in ͵ðis ˙taun.
A 2	ðə 'gəːlz	˙soː	'haːdli ˋenibodi	in ͵taun.
A 2	it	͵meid	'nou ˙sens	tə ∨miː.

Negative Complement.

Tense No.	S	F	nC
A 1	'dʒon	˙siːmz	'not tə bi ͵redi.
A 1	ðə 'gəːlz	˙saund	'not veri in˙θjuːziˋastik.
A 2	ðei	'lukt	ˋnou ˙betə ðən ði ˋʌðəz.

Negative Adverbial.

Tense No.	S	nA	F	O	A
A 1	ˈdʒon	ˈhaːdli ˋevə	ˌdriŋks	ˌkofi	ət ˌnait.
A 1	hi	ˋnevə	ˌkʌmz		tə ˏlʌndən.
A 1	ðei	ˋseldəm	ˌgrou	ˌflauəz	in ðə ˏgaːdn̩.
A 1	ju	ˋnevə	ˌstei		wið ˏʌs.
A 2	wi	ˋseldəm	ˌsoː	ˌmeəri	in ˏtaun.
A 2	ʃi	ˈhaːdli ˋevə	ˌgeiv	ˌeniθiŋ	əˌwei.

See, however, §357 for circumstances under which the anomalous structure is not used in Tenses A1 and A2 with a negative adverbial.

357 Inversion after initial adverbs. The placing of adverbs at the beginning of a sentence in order to emphasize them or to create a more graphic effect is a traditional device in English, though in modern conversation the number and type of adjectives so displaced are fewer than they used to be. In the written language it is still possible to place many of the adverbials given in the list in §§262–3 at the beginning of the sentence.

When some of these adverbials are placed in the initial position no other change is made in the sentence, but with others the subject and finite are nearly always inverted, while in Tenses A1 and A2 the appropriate conjugating finite is resorted to, since inversion with specific finites is not accepted in modern English.

The adverbials that induce inversion are the negative and near-negative adverbials listed in §355, some adverbs of manner, and adverbs of frequency such as ofn̩, friːkwəntli, sʌmtaimz, oːlwiz, twais, θriː taimz, meni taimz, tuː ofn̩. There is no inversion when adverbs of time or place take the initial position.

When this structure is used the adverbial generally takes the nuclear tone, unless this is needed on the specific verbal. Examples:

Tense No.	A	af	S	v	V	O, C, A
A 1	ˈhaːdli ˈevə	du	ai		ˋtravl̩	bai ˌbʌs.
A 2	ˋseldəm	did	ðei		ˌaːsk	fə ˏhelp.
A 3	ˋnevə	ʃl̩	ai		fəˌget	joː ˌkaindnis.
A 4	ˈtuː ˋofn̩	əv	wi		ˌtould	ju əbaut it.
A 5	ˋnouweər	əd	i		ˌsiːn	sʌtʃ ə ˌθiŋ
A 6	ˈθriː ˋtaimz	kəd	ʃi	əv	ˌgot	əˌwei.

Tense No.	A	af	S	v	V	O, C, A
P 1	ˋseldəm	iz	i		əˌlaud	tə ˌgou ˌaut.
P 2	ˋmeni ˌtaimz wə	ju			ˌwoːnd	tə bi ˌkeəfl̩.
P 3	ˋofn̩	kəd	ʃi	bi	ˌhəːd	ˌsiŋiŋ.
P 4	ˈnouweərˋels əv	ðei	bin		ˌhauzd	sou ˌwel.
P 5	ˈnevə biˋfoːr əd	ai	bin		ˌrobd.	
P 6	ˈskeəsli ˋevə wud	ʃi		əv bin ˇmist.		

NEGATIVE INTERROGATION

358 Negation in general questions.   It was explained in §335 that the interrogative-negative form of the sentence is normally formed with the help of a negative conjugating finite ; this is sometimes replaced by the other vehicles of negation listed in §351. These often take the nuclear tone of the question, as they are used to focus attention on the negation of the idea that they convey. As is the case in statements, these negative and near-negative elements are mutually exclusive in questions.

Examples of General Questions containing these elements of negation are given below.

Negative Subjects.

Tense No.	af	nS	V	O
A 1	dəz	ˈnoubodi	˙wont	it ?
A 2	did	ˈhaːdli ˈenibodi	əkˈsept	ðəm ?
A 4	həz	ˈnaiðər əv ðəm	˙siːn	mi ?
A 8	wəz	ˈskeəsli ˈeniθiŋ	˙muːviŋ ?	
P 2	wəz	ˈnʌθiŋ ˈmoː	˙dʌn ?	

Negative Objects.

Tense No.	af	S	v	V	nO
A 1	d	ju		ˈlaik	ˈnʌn əv ðəm ?
A 2	did	ʃi		ˈgriːt	˙haːdli ˈenibodi ?
A 3	ʃəd	wi		iksˈpekt	ˈnaiðər əv ðəm ?
A 6	wil	ðei	əv	ˈteikən	˙nʌn ət ˈoːl ?
A10	həz	i	bin	ˈgiviŋ	ju ˈnʌθiŋ ?

Negative Agent in the Passive.

Tense No.	af	S	v	V	n Agent
P 1	iz	i		'wontid	bai 'noubodi ?
P 3	wil	it	bi	ə'fektid	bai 'nʌθiŋ ?
P 5	həd	ʃi	bin	'wɔːnd	bai 'nʌn əv ju ?
P 7	ə	ðei	biːiŋ	'met	bai 'nouwʌn ?

Negative Complements.

Tense No.	af	S	v	V	nC
A 1	də	ðei		'siːm	'not tə 'maind ?
A 2	did	ʃi		ə'piə	`not `tuː 'pliːzd ?
A10	həz	i	bin	'lukiŋ	`nou 'betə ?

Negative Adverbials.

Tense No.	af	S	nA	V	O, C, A
A 1	də	ðei	'nevə	`spiːk	'iŋgliʃ ?
A 2	did	ju	'reəli	`win	ə 'praiz ?
A 3	məst	wi	'haːdli `evə	`hav	ə 'holidi ?
A 5	həd	ʃi	'seldəm	`noutist	ju bi'foə ?
A 8	wəz	i	'beəli	bi'giniŋ	tə `wəːk ?
P 1	əm	ai	'not	ə`laud	in'said ?
P 2	wə	ðei	'not ət `ɔːl	'teikən	ə'bak ?

359 Negation in special questions. Negation may be inserted in Special Questions by using a negative conjugating finite or any of the other vehicles of negation listed in §351. When the latter are used the nuclear tone usually falls either on them or on the interrogative word.

As the interaction of the interrogative and negative elements in these questions is somewhat complicated it may be as well to tabulate the possible combinations.

	Negative Subject	*Negative Object*
Int. Subj.	——	'huː `sɔː `nʌθiŋ ?
Int. Obj.	'wot did ˌnoubodi ˌsiː ?	——
Int. Adv.	`wai did ˌnoubodi ˌsiː it ?	`wai did ju ˌsiː ˌnʌθiŋ ?

	Negative Adverb	*Negative Finite*
Int. Subj.	'huː `nevə ˌsɔː it ?	'huː `kaːnt ˌsiː it ?
Int. Obj.	'wot did i `nevə ˌsiː ?	'wot `kaːnt ju ˌsiː ?
Int. Adv.	——	`wai ˌkaːnt ju ˌsiː it ?

360   Interrogative word as subject.   Special Questions contain-
ing a negative element follow the rule given in §346 regarding the
use of a statement structure when the interrogative word is the
subject (or part of the subject) of the sentence.   In such questions
the negation may be introduced through the finite, the object or
the adverbial, and in the passive voice the vehicle may be a
negative agent.

When a negative conjugating finite is used, Tenses A1 and A2
use the same sentence pattern as the other tenses, but they retain
the anomalous structure when any of the other vehicles are used.

Negation in the Agent.

Tense No.	S	af	v	V	n Agent
P 1	ˈwot	s		ˌθretn̩d	bai ˌnouwʌn ?
P 2	ˈhuː	wəz		biˌliːvd	bai ˌhaːdli ˌenibodi ?
P 3	ˈwitʃ	l	bi	˙wontid	bai ˈnʌn əv əs ?
P 4	ˈwitʃ	əz	bin	˙juːzd	bai ˈnʌn əv ju ?
P 5	ˈwot	əd	bin	fəˈgotn̩	bai ˈnoubodi ?
P 6	ˈhuː	d	əv bin	˙fraitn̩d	bai ˌnʌθiŋ ?
P 7	ˈwot	s	biːiŋ	˙stʌdid	bai ˈnouwʌn ˌels ?
P 8	ˈhuː	wəz	biːiŋ	˙helpt	bai ˌnʌn əv ðəm ?

Negation in the Adverbial.

Tense No.	S	af	nA	v	V	O, C, A
A 1	(See §363)					
A 2	(See §363)					
A 3	ˈhuː	l	ˌbeəli		ˌkatʃ	ðə ˌbʌs ?
A 4	ˈhuː	z	ˈnevə		ˌsiːn	ˌsnou ?
A 5	ˈwitʃ əv ju əd		˙nevə		ˌmet	ðəm ?
A 6	ˈhuː	wud	ˌseldəm əv		ˌtoːkt	əbaut it ?
A 7	ˈhuː	z	˙not		ˈlisniŋ	tə mi ?
A 8	ˈwitʃ ˙gəːl	wəz	ˈskeəsli		˙iːtiŋ	ˌeniθiŋ ?
A 9	ˈhuː	l	˙reəli	bi	˙puliŋ	iz ˌweit ?
P 1	ˈwitʃ əv ju ə		ˈnot		ˌsetld	jet ?
P 2	ˈhuː	wəz	ˌreəli		ˌaːskt	tə ˌstei ?
P 3	ˈwot	kən	ˌskeəsli	bi	ˌpakt	in ˌhiə ?
P 4	ˈhuː	z	ˌseldəm	bin	ˌmeid	tə ˌweit ?
P 5	ˈwot	əd	ˈnevə	bin	ˌstouln̩	biˌfoə ?
P 6	ˈhuː	wud	ˌhaːdli	əv bin	ˌmist ?	

Negation in the Finite.

Tense No.	S	nf	v	V	O, C, A
A 1	'huː	ˋdʌznt		ˌdriŋk	ˌkofi ?
A 2	'witʃ əv ju	ˋdidnt		ˌsiː	ˌmeəri ?
A 3	'hau meni	ˋniːdnt		ˌliːv	ˌəːli ?
A 4	'witʃ əv ju	ˋhavnt		ˌfiniʃt	ðə ˌbuk ?
A 5	'huː	ˋhadnt		riˌsiːvd	ə ˌpraiz ?
A 6	'hau meni	ˋwount	əv	ˌfiniʃt	in ˌtaim ?
A 7	'witʃ ˙boiz	ˋaːnt		ˌjuːziŋ	ˌpenz ?
A 8	'wot	ˋwoznt		ˌfitiŋ	ˌwel ?
A 9	'huː	ˋwudnt	bi	ˌhoupiŋ	tə ˌwin ?
A10	'huː	ˋhaznt	bin	ˌtoːkiŋ	əbaut it ?
A11	'huː ˋels	ˌhadnt	bin	ˌhelpiŋ	ju ?
A12	'huː	ˋwount	əv bin	ˌdroːiŋ	kənˌkluːʒnz ?
P 1	'wot ˋels	ˌisnt		əˌlaud ?	
P 2	'witʃ wʌn	ˌwoznt		ˌdamidʒd ?	
P 3	'hau mʌtʃ	ˌkudnt	bi	ˌfitid	ˌin ?
P 4	'witʃ əv ju	ˌhavnt	bin	ˌoːdəd	tə ˌliːv ?
P 5	'witʃ əv ðəm	˙hadnt	bin	˙traid	biˌfoə ?
P 6	'wot	ˋwount	əv bin	ˌteikən	əˌwei ?
P 7	'huː	ˌiznt	biːiŋ	ˌaːskt	tə ˌhelp ?
P 8	'wot	ˋwoznt	biːiŋ	ˌsed	əbaut əs ?

Negation in the Object.

Tense No.	S	af	v	V	nO
A 1	(See §363)				
A 2	(See §363)				
A 3	'huː	məst		˙iːt	ˌnʌθiŋ ?
A 4	'witʃ əv ju	əv		˙finiʃt	'skeəsli ˌeni ?
A 5	'huː	d		˙mendid	ˌnʌθiŋ ?
A 6	'hau ˙meni	l	əv	˙siːn	'nʌθiŋ ət ˌoːl ?
A 7	'witʃ əv ju	ə		˙duːiŋ	ˌnʌn əv it ?
A 8	'huː	wəz		˙juːziŋ	'haːdli ˌeniθiŋ ?
A 9	'witʃ ˙boiz	ʃəd	bi	˙raitiŋ	ˌnʌθiŋ ?
A10	'huː	z	bin	˙duːiŋ	'nʌθiŋ ˌels ?
A11	'witʃ əv ju	əd	bin	˙driŋkiŋ	ˌnʌθiŋ ?
A12	'huː	l	əv bin	˙helpiŋ	ˌnoubodi ?

361 Interrogative word as object. When the interrogative word introducing a Special Question is the object of the sentence a question structure is used and Tenses A1 and A2 do not take the anomalous structure.

Negation may be introduced through the finite, the subject or the adverbial.

Negation in the Finite.

Tense No.	O	nf	S	v	V
A 1	'wot	ˋdʌzn̩t	ˌdʒon		ˌdriŋk?
A 2	'witʃ wʌn	ˋdidn̩t	ˌmeəri		ˌsiː?
A 3	'huː(m)	ˋmʌsn̩t	wi		inˌvait?
A 4	'hau meni	ˌhavn̩t	ju		ˌmaːkt?
A 5	'witʃ əv ðəm	ˋhadn̩t	ðə ˌboiz		ˌfiniʃt?
A 6	'huː(m)	ˋwudn̩t	ðei	əv	əkˌseptid?
A 7	'wot	ˋizn̩t	i		ˌduːiŋ?
A 8	'witʃ əv əs	ˋwəːnt	ju		iksˌpektiŋ?
A 9	'witʃ wʌn	˙wount	ju	bi	ˌjuːziŋ?
A10	'wot	ˋhavn̩t	ai	bin	ˌduːiŋ?
A11	'witʃ ˙buks	'hadn̩t	ʃi	bin	ˌriːdiŋ?
A12	'wot	ˋwount	ðei	əv bin	ˌθiŋkiŋ?

Negation in the Subject.

Tense No.	O	af	nS	v	V
A 1	'wot	dəz	ˋnouwʌn		ˌdriŋk?
A 2	'wit əv ðəm	did	ˋnʌn əv ju		ˌsiː?
A 3	'huː(m)	kən	ˋnoubodi		ˌstand?
A 4	'wot	əv	˙nʌn əv ju		ˋʌndəˌstud?
A 5	ˋwitʃ ˌplei	əd	ˌhaːdli ˌenibodi		inˌdʒoid?
A 6	'witʃ əv ju	wil	ˋnouwʌn	əv	inˌvaitid?
A 7	'wot	ə	ˋnʌn əv ðəm		ˌiːtiŋ?
A 8	'wot ˙geim	wəz	'skeəsli ˋeniwʌn		ˌpleiiŋ?
A 9	ˋwitʃ wʌn	ʃəd	ˌnoubodi	bi	ˌjuːziŋ?
A10	'wot	əv	ˋnʌn əv əs	bin	ˌθiŋkiŋ?
A11	'witʃ ˙buk	əd	ˋnoubodi	bin	ˌriːdiŋ?
A12	'wot	l	ˋnʌn əv ðəm	əv bin	iksˌpektiŋ?

Negation in the Adverbial.

Tense No.	O	af	S	nA	v	V
A 1	'wot	dəz	˙dʒon	ˎnevə		ˌdriŋk?
A 2	'huː(m)	did	˙meəri	ˎseldəm		ˌsiː?
A 3	'witʃ	ʃḷ	wi	˙haːdli ˎevə		ˌniːd?
A 4	'wot	əv	ðei	˙skeəsli		ˎtraid?
A 5	'witʃ əv ðəm	əd	ju	ˎnot		ˌmet?
A 6	'huːz ˙neim	wud	ju	'nevər	əv	ˎgest?
A 7	ˎwot	ə	ðei	ˌbeəli		ˌtraiiŋ?
A 8	ˎwot	wəz	ʃi	ˌhaːdli		ˌtəːniŋ?
A 9	'witʃ	ḷ	ju	˙nevə	bi	ˎjuːziŋ?
A10	'huː(m)	əv	ðei	˙haːdli	bin	ˎsiːiŋ?
A11	'witʃ 'buk	əd	i	ˎnot	bin	ˌriːdiŋ?
A12	'wot	˙mei	ʃi	ˎnot	əv bin	ˌseiiŋ?

362 Interrogative word as adverb. When the interrogative word introducing a Special Question is an adverb a question structure is used and Tenses A1 and A2 do not take the anomalous structure.

Negation may be introduced through the finite, the subject, the object or, in the passive voice, through the agent.

Negation in the Finite.

Tense No.	A	nf	S	v	V	O, C, A
A 1	'wai	˙dʌzṇt	'dʒon		˙driŋk	ˎkofi?
A 2	ˎwai	ˌdidṇt	ˌmeəri		ˌsiː	ðə ˌgəːlz?
A 3	'weə	ˎwouṇt	ju		ˌfaind	wʌn?
A 4	'weə	ˎhazṇt	ʃi		ˌlukt	fər it?
A 5	'wai	˙hadṇt	ðei		ˎweitid	fə mi?
A 6	'wai	˙kudṇt	ˎai	əv	ˌhad	wʌn?
A 7	'wen	ˎizṇt	it		ˌreiniŋ	ˌhiə?
A 8	'weə	ˎwozṇt	it		ˌreiniŋ?	
A 9	'wen	˙wouṇt	ðei	bi	ˎniːdiŋ	ju?
A10	'wai	˙havṇt	ðei	bin	ˎweitiŋ	fər əs?
A11	'wen	ˎhadṇt	i	bin	ˌwəːkiŋ?	
A12	'wai	˙kudṇt	ʃi	əv bin	'duːiŋ	hə ˎwəːk?

Negation in the Subject.

Tense No.	A	af	nS	v	V	O, C, A
A 1	'wai	dəz	˙noubodi		'driŋk	ˌkofi ?
A 2	'wai	did	˙nʌn əv ju		'si:	ˌmeəri ?
A 3	'weə	wud	˙noubodi		ˋfaind	it ?
A 4	'weər	əv	˙nʌn əv əs		ˋlukt	fər it ?
A 5	'wai	əd	˙noubodi		ˌko:ld	fə mi ?
A 6	'wai	ʃəd	ˋnʌn əv əs	əv	ˌhad	wʌn ?
A 7	'wen	iz	ˋnʌθiŋ		ˌhapniŋ	ˌhiə ?
A 8	ˋweə	wəz	ˌnʌθiŋ		ˌhapniŋ ?	
A 9	'hau ˙su:n		ˋnouwʌn	bi	ˌni:diŋ	it ?
A10	'wai	əv	˙nʌn əv ju	bin	ˋwə:kiŋ ?	
A11	'wai	əd	˙nʌn əv ðəm bin		ˋweitiŋ	fər əs ?
A12	'wai	ʃəd	˙noubodi	əv bin	ˋlisniŋ	tə mi ?
P 1	'weər	iz	'nou ˙mo:		ˌni:did ?	
P 2	'wen	wəz	'nʌθiŋ ˙els		ˌleft ?	
P 3	'wai	kən	˙nʌθiŋ ˋmo:	bi	ˌdʌn	fə him ?
P 4	sins 'wen	əz	ˋnouwʌn	bin	ˌsi:n	ˌðeə ?
P 5	'wai	əd	˙nʌθiŋ	bin	ˌdʌn	fə ðəm ?
P 6	'wai	kəd	˙nou ˋmo:r	əv bin	ˌfaund ?	
P 7	'wai	iz	˙nʌθiŋ	bi:iŋ	ˌsed	əbaut it ?
P 8	'wai	wəz	˙noubodi	bi:iŋ	ˋbleimd	fər it ?

Negation in the Object.

Tense No.	A	af	S	v	V	nO
A 1	'wai	dəz	˙dʒon		'driŋk	ˌnʌθiŋ ?
A 2	'wai	did	˙meəri		'si:	ˋnʌn əv ju ?
A 3	'wen		ju		˙ou	ˌnʌθiŋ ?
A 4	sins ˋwen	əv	ju		ˌfaund	ˌnou ˌru:m ?
A 5	'wai	əd	ʃi		'a:skt	ˌnoubodi ?
A 6	'wai	ʃəd	wi	əv	˙noutist	ˌnouwʌn ?
A 7	'wai	z	ʃi		'ju:ziŋ	'nou ˋso:lt ?
A 8	ˋwen	wəz	i		ˌdriŋkiŋ	ˌnʌθiŋ ?
A 9	'hau ˙su:n		ðei	bi	'peiiŋ	ˋnoubodi ?
A10	sins ˋwen	əz	i	bin	ˌouiŋ	ˌnʌθiŋ ?
A11	'wai	əd	ðei	bin	˙seiiŋ	ˋnʌθiŋ ?
A12	ˋwai	ʃəd	wi	əv bin	ˌi:tiŋ	ˌnou ˌbred ?

Negation in the Agent.

Tense No.	A	af	S	v	V	n Agent
P 1	'wai	iz	it		˙juːzd	bai 'nouwʌn ˌels ?
P 2	ˋwen	wə	ju		əˌmjuːzd	bai ˌnʌθiŋ ?
P 3	'wen	ǀ	it	bi	˙wontid	bai ˋnoubodi ?
P 4	'wai	əz	ʃi	bin	əˈkjuːzd	bai ˋnʌn əv ju ?
P 5	'wai	əd	it	bin	riˈmembəd	bai ˋnoubodi ?
P 6	'wen	ud	ʃi	əv bin	ˈfraitn̩d	bai ˌnʌθiŋ ?
P 7	'wai	iz	it	biːiŋ	ˈstʌdid	bai 'nouwʌn ˌels ?
P 8	'wai	wə	wi	biːiŋ	ˈhelpt	bai ˌnʌn əv ju ?

363 Anomalous interrogative-negative. This occurs in Tenses A1 and A2 when the interrogative word is (or forms part of) the subject of the Special Question, provided the negation is not expressed by a negative finite. Since interrogative words do not contain a negative element, the negation can in effect be introduced only by an object, an adverbial or a complement.

Negation in the Object.

Tense No.	S	F	nO	A
A 1	'hau ˙meni əv ju	ˈdriŋk	ˋnʌθiŋ	ət ˌnait ?
A 1	'huː	ˈgrouz	ˋnou ˌflauəz	in ðə ˌgaːdn̩ ?
A 2	'witʃ ˈgəːlz	ˈsoː	ˋnoubodi	in ˌtaun ?

Negation in the Adverbial.

Tense No.	S	nA	F	O
A 1	'hau ˙meni əv ju	ˋseldəm	ˌdriŋk	ˌkofi ?
A 1	'huː	ˈhaːdli ˋevə	ˌgrouz	ˌflauəz ?
A 2	'witʃ ˈgəːlz	ˋnevə	ˌsoː	ˌmeəri ?

Negation in the Complement.

Tense No.	S	F	nC
A 1	ˋhuː	ˌsiːmz	ˌnou ˌbetə ?
A 1	'witʃ ˈgəːlz	ˈluk	'not ˋikwǀ tu it ?
A 2	'hau ˙meni əv ðəm	əˈpiəd	'not tə ˌmaind ?

BYWAYS OF NEGATION

364 Degrees of negation. A scale of five different degrees ranging from a full affirmative to a full negative is provided by certain compound determiners and by compounds of the adverb weə*. Many of these are formed with the aid of the partitives (§§75–8). The following table shows the five degrees.

Full Aff.	Partial Aff.	Indefinite	Partial Neg.	Full Neg.
ɔːl	sʌm	eni	not ɔːl	nou, nʌn
evribodi	sʌmbodi	enibodi	not evribodi	noubodi
evriwʌn	sʌmwʌn	eniwʌn	not evriwʌn	nouwʌn
evriθiŋ	sʌmθiŋ	eniθiŋ	not evriθiŋ	nʌθiŋ
evriweə*	sʌmweə*	eniweə*	not evriweə*	nouweə*
bouθ		aiðə*		naiðə*

The word **nou** is adjectival, while **nʌn** is pronominal; all the other words on the first and last lines of the table may be used in either capacity. All compounds of -bodi, -wʌn and -θiŋ are pronominal, while compounds of **weə*** are normally adverbial but can be used as pronouns (§231). With the determiners expressing duality only one intermediate degree is possible.

365 Uses of the degrees of negation. The behaviour of the various forms shown in the table in §364 will now be described.

The fully affirmative forms.

These are used freely, with one exception, as subjects or objects, in questions or statements, and with affirmative or negative finites.

'kan 'evribodi ˈjuːz ðəm ?   ˋevribodi məs ˌteik wʌn.
'mʌst wi inˈvait 'evriwʌn ?   ju məst iŋˈkluːd ˏevriwʌn.
'dʌznt 'evribodi ˈlaik ˈkofi ?   ———
'havn̩t ju ˈsiːn 'evriθiŋ ?   ju 'havn̩t ˈsiːn ˇevriθiŋ.

The exception referred to above is the use of these forms as subjects of a negative finite. Though this structure may often be heard in familiar speech, careful speakers avoid it on account of its ambiguity. Thus sentences such as

ˋɔːl ˌizn̩t ˌgould ðət ˌglitəz. *or* ˋevribodi ˌwount ˌdriŋk ˏðat.

are usually intended to mean

'not ˋɔːl ðət ˌglitəz iz ˌgould. *and* 'not ˋevribodi | ˌdriŋk ˏðat.

whereas their logical meanings are

ˋnʌθiŋ ðət ˌglitəz iz ˌgould. *and* ˋnoubodi | ˌdriŋk ˏðat.

Though the use of a suitable intonation (as shown above) may go a little way towards determining the meaning, it is obviously better to use the unambiguous structure that has the partially negative determiner as subject of an affirmative finite.

The partially affirmative forms.

The most frequent use of these is in statements containing affirmative finites.

> ˈsʌmwʌn z ˈweitiŋ tə ˈsiː ju.   ai ʃəd ˈlaik ˈsʌmθiŋ ˌdifrṇt.

They are used as subjects of negative finites in such statements as the following.

> ˈsʌmwʌn ˈdʌzṇt ˈlaik ju.   ˈsʌm əv ðəm ˈdidṇt get ˈkukt.

They are also used in questions that are intended to suggest, invite or press for an affirmative answer, and particularly with a negative finite. In extending invitations they are used for politeness in preference to the indefinite forms.

> ˈhaznṭ ˈsʌmwʌn ˈmeid ə misˈteik? wud ju ˈlaik sṃ ˈkofi?
> wil ju ˈgiv mi sṃ ˈmoː ˈtiː?   ˈwudṇt ju ˈlaik ˈsʌmθiŋ ˈels?

The indefinite forms.

These are not normally used as subjects in statements. In other capacities they are used in the following cases.

In most questions except those using the partially affirmative forms described above:

> həv ju ˈfiniʃt ˈeni əv ðəm?   ˈwount ˈenibodi ˈhelp ju?

In dubitative statements:

> ai ˈwʌndər if ˈenibodi z ˌðeə. ai ˈdount ˈnou if ðər ˈaːr ˌeni.

In statements containing a negative finite or other negative element:

> wi ˈhavṇt ˈgot ˌeniθiŋ ˌmoə. hi ˈdʌzṇt ˈlaik ˈaiðər əv ðəm.
> ˈnoubodi ˌwonts eni ˌtʃiːz.   ˈnouweə wə ðər ˌeni tə bi ˌsiːn.

But when they are used in definite statements with an affirmative finite they have the special meaning of "no matter who (what, which, where)". They can then be used as subjects.

> ˈenibodi kən ˌduː ˌðat.   hi l ˌgiv ðəm ˈeniθiŋ ðei ˌwont.
> ˈteik ə ˈsiːt ˈeniweə.   ju kən ˈhav ˈaiðər əv ðəm.

The partially negative forms.

These are used almost exclusively as subjects of statements using an affirmative finite.   In questions and as objects they are nearly always replaced by a fully affirmative form with a negative finite, as shown above in the paragraph dealing with the fully affirmative forms.

ˈnot ˈoːl ðei ˌsei iz ˌtruː.   ˈnot ˈevriwʌn kən ˌswim ˌwel.

The fully negative forms.

These are used in both questions and statements, but only with affirmative finites.   They may serve as subjects or objects.

wil ˈnouwʌn ˈhav eni ˈmoə ?   ˈnoubodi ˌlaiks ˌðat.
did ju ˈsiː ˈnʌθiŋ ət ˈoːl ?   wi v ˈteikən ˈnaiðər əv ðəm.

366   Choice of negation.   It has been seen (§351) that negation can be expressed in various ways other than by a negative finite, and that the other vehicles of negation, most of which are determiners compounded with partitives, are more emphatic than the negative finites.

It may be useful to give some indication of the factors that influence a speaker's choice between the following structures:

- *a*. An indefinite determiner with a negative finite.
- *b*. A negative determiner with an affirmative finite.
- *c*. Precursory ðeə* before a negative finite.
- *d*. Precursory ðeə* before a negative determiner.

If the determiner is the subject of the sentence, structure *b* is the one most favoured, but if this is felt to be too emphatic structure *c* may be substituted for it in order to soften the statement.

b	*c*
ˈnouwʌn ˌkoːld ˌjestədi.	ðə ˈwozn̩t ˈeniwʌn u ˌkoːld ˌjestədi.
ˈnʌθiŋ ˈels ˈmatəz.	ðər ˈizn̩t ˈeniθiŋ ˈels ðət ˈmatəz.
ˈnʌn əv ðəm ˈwont it.	ðər ˈaːnt ˈeni əv ðəm ðət ˈwont it.
ˈnou ˌʃops ər ˌoupən ˌnau.	ðər ˈaːnt eni ˌʃops ˌoupən ˌnau.

When sentences of this type are turned into questions structure *a* is generally preferred, though some speakers favour structure *b*.

a	*b*
'didn̩t ˈeniwʌn ˙koːl ˈjestədi ?	did ˈnouwʌn ˙koːl ˈjestədi ?
'dʌznt ˙eniθiŋ ˈels ˙matə ?	dəz 'nʌθiŋ ˙els ˈmatə ?
'dount ˙eni əv ðəm ˈwont it ?	ðə 'nʌn əv ðəm ˈwont it ?
'aːnt ˈeni ˙ʃops ˙oupən ˙nau ?	ə ˈnou ˙ʃops ˙oupən ˙nau ?

If the determiner is not the subject of the sentence, structure *a* is the one normally used in statements, but a speaker wishing to be emphatic will use structure *b*.

a	*b*
wi 'havn̩t ˙siːn ˌenibodi.	wi v ˌsiːn ˌnoubodi.
ai 'kaːnt ˙faind ˌeniθiŋ.	ai kən ˌfaind ˌnʌθiŋ.
hi 'didn̩t ˙sei ˌeniθiŋ.	hi ˌsed ˌnʌθiŋ.
ʃi 'dʌznt ˙laik ˌaiðər əv ðəm.	ʃi 'laiks ˌnaiðər əv ðəm.

Structure *a* is also usually preferred in questions in this case, as structure *b* tends to sound stilted.

a	*b*
'havn̩t ju ˙siːn ˈenibodi ?	həv ju 'siːn ˈnoubodi ?
'kaːnt ju ˙faind ˈeniθiŋ ?	kən ju 'faind ˈnʌθiŋ ?
'didn̩t i ˙sei ˈeniθiŋ ?	did i ˌsei ˈnʌθiŋ ?
'dʌznt ʃi ˙laik ˈaiðər əv ðəm ?	dəz ʃi ˌlaik ˈnaiðər əv ðəm ?

When precursory ðeə* is used in statements the impersonal nature of the sentence makes it improbable that an emphatic construction will be impolite and structure *d* is therefore generally favoured. Furthermore, the negative determiners provide a more definite subject than do the indefinite ones, and they are therefore more suited to the precursory ðeə* structure.

ðə z 'nʌθiŋ tə bi ˌdʌn əbaut it. ðə l bi 'nouwʌn ˌðeə ˌjet.

ðə wəz 'nou ˙moː ˌbred ˌleft. ðə v bin 'nou ᵛaksidn̩ts.

When precursory ðeə* is used in questions structure *c* is generally preferred, as structure *d* sounds rather stilted.

c	*d*
'izn̩t ðər ˙eniθiŋ tə bi ˈdʌn ?	iz ðə 'nʌθiŋ tə bi ˈdʌn ?
'wozn̩t ðər ˙eni moː ˈbred left ?	wəz ðə 'nou moː ˈbred left ?
'wount ðə bi ˙eniwʌn ˈðeə jet ?	wil ðə bi 'nouwʌn ˈðeə ˙jet ?
'havn̩t ðə bin eni ˈaksidn̩ts ?	həv ðə bin 'nou ˈaksidn̩ts ?

367 Negative infinitives. Most of the infinitive phrases described in §§241–50 can be used in their negative forms, and in

many cases they give a more definite meaning than does a negative finite. Compare, on the one hand

ʃi l iks'pekt ju tə ˎgou.   ʃi 'wount iks˙pekt ju ˋnot tə ˎgou.

and on the other hand

ʃi l iks'pekt ju 'not tə ˎgou.   ʃi 'wount iksˋpekt ju tə ˎgou.

It is clear that the first of each pair, which contains the affirmative finite, is more decided in feeling than the second, containing a negative finite.

The following are more examples of negative infinitive phrases incorporated in sentences.

ju məst 'wəːk ˎhaːd, sou əz 'not tə ˙feil in ði igˎzam.
wi pə'sweidid ðəm ˙not tə ˙weit eni ˎlɔŋgə.
'wudṇt it əv bin ə ʹpiti ˙not tu əv ˙gon?
ju wə ˋstjuːpid ˎnot tu əv ˎweitid fə ˎmiː.
it ud ˅pei ju 'not tə bi ˙faund 'weistiŋ ˋtaim.
ai ˎhav 'nou aiˋdiə ˎhau ˎnot tə bi ˎdroːn ˎintu it.
'didṇt it əʹnoi ðəm ˙not tu əv bin in˙vaitid?
ðə wəz ə 'dʒenrl diˈzaiə 'not tə bi əˈtraktiŋ əˋtenʃṇ.
in 'oːdə ˙not tu inˏtruːd, ai 'kept in ðə ˎbakgraund.
hi pri'tendid ˙not tu əv bin ˋlisniŋ tu əs.

368 Negative participles. Many of the participial adjectives described in §§101–7 may have **not** prefixed to them in order to reverse their meaning. In particular, those already having the prefix ʌn- and suggesting a quality are frequently used with a prefixed **not** in order to convey a qualified affirmative opinion. Examples of these are given in the third column below.

'not kənˋvinsiŋ	'not iniksˋpiəriənst	'not ʌnˋsatisfaiiŋ
'not səˋpraiziŋ	'not ˙self-diˋdʒestiŋ	'not ʌniksˋpektid
'not ˙ʌndəˋdʌn	'not ˙badli ˋbilt	'not ʌnˋintristiŋ
'not ˙faːˋsiːiŋ	'not iŋˋkʌridʒiŋ	'not ʌnˋkoːldˎfoː
'not ˋhʌrid	'not ˙wel ˋfitiŋ	'not ʌnˋnoun
'not ˋkraudid	'not ˙wel-inˋfoːmd	'not ʌndiˋzəːviŋ

Examples of the use of **not** to make participles negative when they are used in participal phrases, in absolute constructions or as gerunds or half-gerunds are given in §§254–7.

When participles are used as specific verbals to form tenses in the Aspect of Activity (i.e., Tenses A7 to A12 and P7 and P8),

any negation that is required is added in the ways described in §§351–5, and these usually exclude the use of negative participles.

369 Double negatives. The presence of two negatives in a clause gives an affirmative meaning. Any of the vehicles of negation mentioned in §351 may be combined with any other, though the most frequent combinations are probably a negative finite combined with one of the other vehicles.

Although double negatives used cumulatively (i.e., intended to bear a negative meaning) may be heard from some native English speakers, foreign students are warned that this is regarded as a feature of sub-standard speech in all English-speaking countries.

When two negatives are correctly used antithetically a special intonation (Tune III) is generally used on the sentence; this helps to indicate that the two negatives are meant to cancel each other out. If a negative adverb begins the sentence the subject and finite are inverted, as explained in §357.

The following examples show some of the ways in which double negatives are correctly used.

ju ˋkaːnt əv ˏsiːn ˏnoubodi ˏoːl ðə ˏmoːniŋ	(nf |nO)
ðə z 'haːdli ˋenibodi hu ˏdʌznt dis ˏlaik im.	(nS | nf)
ai 'havn̩ ˙teikən 'oːl ðat ˙trʌbl̩ fə �ˏnʌθiŋ.	(nf |nA)
'not fə ˋnʌθiŋ həv ai ˏteikən ˏoːl ðat ˏtrʌbl̩.	(nA|nA)
ai 'ʃudn̩t ˙laik tə ˙liːv ˋnʌθiŋ fə ˏjuː.	(nf |nO)

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE

370 Use of the passive. The passive voice is used when the doer of an action is (1) obvious, (2) unknown or imprecise, or (3) being deliberately kept anonymous for some reason or other. Examples:

1. ðə pə'liːs əv ə'restid im.   hi z bin ə'restid.
2. 'sʌmwʌn məst ˋmend ˏðis.   'ðis məs bi ˋmendid.
3. ai 'mʌst əv ˙meid ə misˋteik.   ə misˋteik ˏmʌst əv bin ˏmeid.

The doer of the action is occasionally named when the passive is used. This may be done in order to change the focus of interest of the sentence, or to give it a neater structure or smoother intonation.

        Active: 'dʒonz ˋsistə ˏtoːt im tə ˏswim.
       Passive: 'dʒon wəz ˙toːt tə ˙swim bai iz ˋsistə.

In this case the passive allows a more rhythmical distribution of the stresses and enables the nuclear tone on sistə to occupy its normal place at the end of the sentence.

It must also be remembered that, for the reasons mentioned in §206, the passive is used more frequently in English than in many other languages.

The essential element in forming the passive voice tenses is some part of the verb tə biː followed by the past participle of the specific verb. There are, however, cases in which the past participle, instead of forming part of a passive tense, functions as an adjectival complement to the verb tə biː acting as a verb of incomplete predication. In some borderline cases it is difficult to decide which of the two functions it is fulfilling.

The classification of sentences as between these two structures may depend on the tense that is being used ; after the present and past tenses of the verb tə biː the participle tends to have an adjectival function rather than the verbal one it would have in the same semantic context but in other tenses. Compare :

    ʃi l əv bin 'disə`pointid.       ʃi z 'disə`pointid.
    ðə 'kʌp əd bin `broukən.    ðə 'kʌp wəz `broukən.

A past participle that might otherwise be considered as adjectival must be regarded as a verbal forming a passive tense when it is followed by certain adverbial phrases, particularly those naming the agent. Compare :

    ai wəz sə`praizd.   wi wə sə'praizd bai ði ˌenəmi.
    'ðis ˈsiːt s ri`zəːvd.      'ðis ˈsiːt s ri'zəːvd fə `juː.

While many of the passive participials listed in §105 are frequently used as verbals in passive voice tenses, the compound passive participials of §107 act much more rarely in that capacity.

371 Conversion from active to passive. When active voice sentences are converted to the passive certain changes, in addition to the details of tense structure, become necessary. The form of the finite may have to be adjusted for person or number, and if the modals ʃal or wil are involved in statements, there will probably have to be an interchange if one of the subjects is in the first person. If an adverb of manner is used its position will be after the object in the active but before the specific verbal in the passive, as shown in some of the following examples below.

Affirmative.

A > P

ðei 'koːld on im tə ˌspiːk.	2	hi wəz 'koːld on tə ˌspiːk.
wi l ə'tend tu it.	3	it ʃl bi ə'tendid tu.
ju v 'ritn̩ it ˇbadli.	4	it s bin 'badli ˌritn̩.

Interrogative.

A > P

d ju 'ʌndə'stand ˙ðat?	1	iz 'ðat ˙ʌndə'stud?
'ʃud wi ig'noːr im?	3	'ʃud i bi ig'noːd?
həv ðei 'finiʃt ðə ˙wəːk?	4	həz ðə 'wəːk bin 'finiʃt?
'oːt wi tu əv 'tould im?	6	'oːt i tu əv bin 'tould?
iz i 'weiiŋ ðəm 'keəfḷi?	7	ə ðei biːiŋ 'keəfḷi 'weid?

Negative.

When the active sentence contains a negative or near-negative
subject this is of course lost in the passive, and the negation must
be introduced in some other way. This is usually effected by using
a negative finite or a negative or near-negative adverb.

If the active sentence has a negative object this automatically
becomes the negative subject of the passive and no further change
is necessary, but when partitives or semi-pronouns compounded
with them are used adjustments may have to be made, as in the
first example below.

If the active sentence contains a negative or near-negative adverb
no adjustment is necessary.

Negative Finite > Negative Subject, or No Change.

A > P

wi 'havn̩t ˙teikən ˇeni.	4	ˇnʌn əv bin ˌˇteikən.
ðei 'wəːnt ˌhelpiŋ im.	8	hi 'woznt biːiŋ ˌhelpt.

Negative Subject > Negative Adverb or New Negative Subject.

A > P

'nʌθiŋ ˇfraitn̩d im.	2	hi wəz 'nevə ˇfraitn̩d.
'haːdli ˙eniwʌn kən ˇmuːv it.	3	it kən 'haːdli bi ˇmuːvd.
'nouwʌn z ˙wʌn eni ˌˇpraiziz.	4	'nou ˇpraiziz əv bin ˌwʌn.

Negative Object > Negative Subject.

A > P

ðei ˌsed 'haːdli ˌeniθiŋ.	2	'haːdli ˌeniθiŋ wəz ˌsed.
wi ə 'teliŋ ˇnoubodi.	7	ˇnoubodi z ˌbiːiŋ ˌtould.

Negative Adverb—No Change in Vechicle of Negation.

<center>A > P</center>

wʌn 'haːdli ˙evə ˋsiːz im.	1	hi z 'haːdli ˙evə ˋsiːn.
wi v 'nevə ˋhəːd əv it.	4	it s 'nevə bin ˋhəːd ov.

Interrogative Negative.

The changes in vehicles of negation shown above are also to be found in the interrogative-negative, as can be seen from some of the following unclassified examples.

<center>A > P</center>

dəz ʹnʌθiŋ sə˙praiz ju ?	1	ə ju ʹnevə sə˙praizd ?
'didṇt ðei ʹniːd it ?	2	'woznt it ʹniːdid ?
məst wi 'tel ʹnoubodi ?	3	məst ʹnoubodi bi ˙tould ?
'havṇt ðei ʹsiːn əs ?	4	'havṇt wi bin ʹsiːn ?
'hadṇt ʃi ʹsaind it ?	5	'hadṇt it bin ʹsaind ?
'ʃudṇt wi əv ʹpoustid it ?	6	'ʃudṇt it əv bin ʹpoustid ?
iz 'noubodi ʹwotʃiŋ əː ?	7	'iznt ʃi ˙biːiŋ ʹwotʃt ?
wə ðei 'duːiŋ ˙nou ʹwəːk ?	8	wəz 'nou ʹwəːk ˙biːiŋ ˙dʌn ?

<center>WORD ORDER IN PREDICATES</center>

372 Objects and adverbials. It is a general rule of English syntax that if a verb is followed by an object and an adverbial, the former must precede the latter except in a few cases where there are special reasons for reversing the order. This is a rule that gives a great deal of trouble to foreign students of English, because in a number of languages the practice is the exact opposite. The following are typical of incorrect constructions often used by such students:

> d ju 'laik ˙betə ði ʹʌðə wʌn ?   wi 'krost ˙tuː ˙suːn ðə ˌrivə.
> 'stʌdi ˋkeəfḷi ðis ˌlesṇ.   hi 'spiːks ˙fluəntli ˌfrentʃ.
> ðei 'spred θru˙aut ðə ˙kʌntri ðeə 'laŋgwidʒ ənd ˌkʌstəmz.

The accepted word order in these cases is:

> d ju 'laik ði ʹʌðə wʌn ˙betə ?   wi 'krost ðə ˙rivə 'tuː ˋsuːn.
> 'stʌdi ðis ˙lesṇ ˌkeəfḷi.   hi 'spiːks ˙frentʃ ˌfluəntli.
> ðei 'spred ðeə ˙laŋgwidʒ ənd ˙kʌstəmz θru'aut ðə ˌkʌntri.

373 Indirect objects and prepositional objects. When an adverbial phrase introduced by **tu** or **fo:*** follows a direct object

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in order to indicate the person or thing for whose sake the action is performed, this adverbial phrase is often referred to as a "prepositional object". Examples:

    ai l 'bai ə ˋbuk fə ðə ˌboi.   wi 'sent sm ˋflauəz tə joː ˌmʌðə.

This "prepositional object" may be placed between the specific verbal and its direct object, provided the preposition is omitted. It is then known as an indirect object, and the structure has the form: Subject + verb + indirect object + direct object. Examples:

    ai l 'bai ðə ˙boi ə ˋbuk.   wi 'sent joː ˙mʌðə sm ˋflauəz.

It might be less confusing, while retaining the term "indirect object", to refrain from using the expression "prepositional object" and to refer to this feature as an adverbial of movement, direction, motive, cause, or whatever other semantic function it may perform for the verb with which it happens to be used. This would serve to maintain a clearer distinction between the two structures, which are often confused by foreign students. This step would seem to be justified by the fact that the adverbial may be placed for emphasis (or for contrast with some other recipient) before the subject, a position that is admissible for adverbials but distinctly unusual for objects. Examples:

    fə ðə ˅boi ai l 'bai ə ˋbuk.   tə joː ˅mʌdə wi 'sent sm ˋflauəz.

374 Choice of structures. The verbs involved in these structures indicating that an action is performed for the sake of some person or thing fall into three classes:

        a. Verbs requiring the indirect object.
        b. Verbs admitting either structure.
        c. Verbs rejecting the indirect object.

The largest of these classes is Class *b*, where the speaker is given an option between the two structures. With these verbs it is usual to give the first position to whichever object is shorter or weaker, thus:

Indirect Object:		*Adverbial Phrase:*
ai 'geiv im ðə ˌbuk.		ai 'geiv it tə ˌdʒon.
ai 'geiv ˙dʒon ðə ˌbuk.	*or*	ai 'geiv ðə ˙buk tə ˌdʒon.
ai 'geiv ˙dʒon ðə 'red ˌbuk.		ai 'geiv ðə ˙buk tə mai ˌfaːðə.

These three classes of verbs will now be considered in detail.

375 Verbs requiring the indirect object. The following are the most important of the few verbs with which the indirect object must be used:

tel	aːsk	əlau	tʃaːdʒ	envi

Examples:

'tel mi ðə ˏtruːθ.   ðei l 'tʃaːdʒ əs ə ˏpaund.

wi v ə'laud im ˏθriː.   ai 'aːskt ju ə ˏkwestʃn̩.

hi 'enviz ju joː 'lʌvli ˏgaːdn̩.

376 Verbs admitting either structure. While the rule given in §374 regarding the choice between the two structures is of general application, exceptions are made, very often for the purpose of emphasizing either the person or the thing involved. The examples in this paragraph will therefore be given in both structures.

These verbs may be divided into three classes: those after which the adverbial phrase is introduced by tu, those after which foː* is used, and those after which either can be used—usually with a slightly different meaning.

Since verbs may be followed by all sorts of adverbial phrases, some of which will obviously be introduced by one of the two prepositions under discussion here, it is clearly necessary to apply a test before admitting verbs to these classes. The test here applied is whether the adverbial phrase is convertible into an indirect object.

Adverbial introduced by tu

ou	pei	θrou	hand	tiːtʃ
ʃou	giv	diːl	send	poust
sel	paːs	ofə*	lend	rekəmend

Indirect + Direct Objects:	*Direct Object + Adverbial:*
ʃi 'ouz ˎevriwʌn ˏmʌni.	ʃi 'ouz ˙mʌni tu ˎevriwʌn.
ʃl ai 'giv ˊðem ˙sʌm?	ʃl ai 'giv ˙sʌm tə ˊðem?
hi 'sould mi iz ˏhaus.	hi 'sould iz ˙haus tə ˎmiː.
ju məst ˎofər im ˏwʌn.	ju məst 'ofə ˙wʌn tə ˎhim.
ai l ˎlend ju ðə ˏbuk.	ai l 'lend ðə ˙buk tə ˅juː.
wi l 'tiːtʃ ði ˎʌðəz ˏðat.	wi l 'tiːtʃ ˙ðat tə ði ˎʌðəz.

Adverbial introduced by either **tu** *or* **fo:***

riːd	rait	liːv	siŋ	briŋ	teik

Indirect + Direct Objects:	*Direct Object + Adverbial:*
ˈriːd mi ði ˌaːnsə.	ˈriːd ði ˌaːnsə fə (tə) mi.
ai v ˈritn̩ ðəm ə ˌletə.	ai v ˈritn̩ ə ˌletə tə (fə) ðəm.
hi ˈleft mi iz ˌhaus.	hi ˈleft iz ˈhaus tə ˋmiː.
hi ˈleft mi ə ˌnout.	hi ˈleft ə ˌnout ˌfoː mi.
ˈsiŋ ðm̩ ə ˌsoŋ.	ˈsiŋ ə ˌsoŋ ˌfoː (tə) ðm̩.
ai v ˈbroːt ju ə ˌpreznt̩.	ai v ˈbroːt ə ˌpreznt̩ ˌfoː ju.
ˋbriŋ mi it.	ˈbriŋ it tə ˋmiː.
wi l ˈteik ðm̩ sm̩ ˌtoiz.	wi l ˈteik sm̩ ˌtoiz tə (fə) ðm̩.

Adverbial introduced by **fo:**

bai	get	seiv	meik	grou	faind
duː	wei	spel	bild	gaðə*	pripeə*

The indirect object structure is probably more common with the verbs on the first line than with those on the second, though there is the very common expression ˋduː mi ə ˌfeivə.

Indirect + Direct Objects:	*Direct Object + Adverbial:*
ˈdidn̩t ju ˙bai ′miː eni ?	ˈdidn̩t ju ˙bai eni fə ′miː ?
ʃi məs ˈgaðə ˋðem ˌsʌm.	ʃi məs ˈgaðə ˙sʌm fə ˅ðem.
ai m ˈmeikiŋ ju sm̩ ˋtiː.	ai m ˈmeikiŋ sm̩ ˌtiː ˌfoː ju.
ðei v ˈfaund ju əˋnʌðə.	ðei v ˈfaund əˋnʌðə ˌfoː ju.
ai l ˈget ju wot ai ˅kan.	ai l ˈget wot ai ˋkan ˌfoː ju.
ˈdount ˙wei mi eni ˅tiː.	ˈdount ˙wei eni ˈtiː fə ˅miː.
wil ju ′spel mi ˙ðat ˙wəːd ?	wil ju ′spel ˙ðat ˙wəːd fə mi ?
priˈpeə ðəm ə ˙gud ˌmiːl.	priˈpeər ə ˙gud ˌmiːl fə ðəm.

377 Verbs rejecting indirect objects. There are, of course, large numbers of transitive verbs which may be modified by adverbial phrases introduced by **tu** or **fo:*** but which do not admit the conversion of the adverbial into an indirect object. As the equivalents in some languages of certain of these verbs do take indirect objects, students are prone to use inadmissible structures in English, and should take particular note of the following:

sei	spiːk	sədʒest	oupən	diskraib	iksplein

Correct usage with these verbs is:

ˈdount ˌsei ˌðat tu im əˌgein.
ˈwai ˈdount ju ˈspiːk ˈiŋgliʃ tə mi?
ai I səˈdʒest ən iksˌtʃeindʒ tə ðəm.
ʃl ai ˈoupən ðis ˈletə fə ju?
ai ˈkudn̩t disˈkraib ðə ˇsiːn tə ju.
kən ju iksˈplein ðə ˈmiːniŋ əv ðis ˈsentəns tə mi?

In the case of the verb tu intrədjuːs, referring to two persons, while either may be the direct object, neither may be made an indirect object, and the person not named as the direct object must be brought in by means of an adverbial phrase:

ˈintrəˈdjuːs joː ˌfrend tə mi. *or*
ˈintrəˈdjuːs mi tə joː ˌfrend.

WORD ORDER IN THE PASSIVE

378 Choice of two structures. When verbs such as those considered in §§373–7 are used in the passive they again fall into three classes:

a. The indirect object must be used as the subject of the passive.
b. Either object may be used as the subject of the passive.
c. The direct object must be used as the subject of the passive.

In Classes *a* and *c* there are a few verbs that do not always follow the rule, but these exceptions are not important. In Class *b* the indirect object of the active voice is usually preferred as the subject of the passive, since it gives a smoother structure. This sentence pattern is a source of some trouble to certain foreign students of English.

379 Indirect object must become the subject. The most important verbs belonging to this class are:

tel   aːsk   əlau   tʃaːdʒ   envi

Examples:

ai məs bi ˈtould ðə ˇtruːθ.   wi ʃl bi ˈtʃaːdʒd ə ˇpaund.
ju wər ˈaːskt ə ˇkwestʃn̩.   ju ər ˈenvid joː ˈgud ˇteist.
hi z bin əˇlaud ˌθriː əv ðəm.

380 **Either object may become the subject.** In the case of verbs that admit either object of the active voice as subject of the passive certain preferences are observable. At times the choice is determined by semantic factors.

With the following verbs the indirect object is often preferred:

ʃou	pei	diːl	hand	tiːtʃ
sel	giv	liːv	lend	ofə*

Indirect Object as Subject: *Direct Object as Subject:*

hi wəz ˋpeid iˌnʌf.   iˈnʌf wəz ᵛpeid tu im.

ju ʃl bi ˈgivn̩ ˎmoə.   ˋmoː ʃl bi ˌgivn̩ tə ju.

ʃi z bin ˈhandid əː ˎtikit.   hə ˈtikit s bin ᵛhandid tu ə.

ai ˋmei bi ˌleft ə ˋfoːtʃn̩.   ə ˋfoːtʃn̩ ˎmei bi ˌleft tə mi.

ðei ə biːiŋ ˋofəd ˌhelp.   ˈhelp s biːiŋ ᵛofəd tə ðəm.

With the following verbs the direct object is often preferred:

ou	get	riːd	send	faind
duː	bai	seiv	briŋ	rekəmend

Direct Object as Subject: *Indirect Object as Subject:*

ə ˋlot iz ˌoud tə ðəm.   ðei ər ˈoud ə ˋlot.

ˈwʌn z biːiŋ ˋboːt fər əs.   wi ə biːiŋ ˋboːt wʌn.

sm̩ ˋsʌpə z bin ˌseivd fə ju. ju v bin ˈseivd səm ᵛtrʌbl̩.

ə ˈnout ʃl bi ˎsent tə hə.   ʃi ʃl bi ˈsent ə ˎnout.

ə ˈdʒob z bin ˎfaund fər im.   hi z bin ˈfaund ə ˎdʒob.

381 **Direct object becomes the subject.** When the direct object of the active voice is used as the subject in the passive the other person or thing involved must be introduced in an adverbial phrase beginning with either tu or foː*. The following are typical verbs with which this structure is used:

sei	paːs	spiːk	poust	sədʒest
wei	meik	teik	oupən	diskraib
siŋ	spel	rait	gaðə*	iksplein
bild	θrou	grou	pripeə*	intrədjuːs

Examples:

P1 jɔː 'letə z ˈpaːst tu 'ʌs fər ˌakʃn̩.

P1 ði 'ap|z ə ˈweid fə ju in ˌsaks.

P2 'ðis ˈhaus wəz 'bilt ˋspeʃ|i foːr əs.

P2 ðə 'doː wəz ˈoupənd fə ðəm bai ə ˌsəːvn̩t.

P3 ðə 'letər | bi ˈritn̩ tə ˋmiː.

P3 'nʌθiŋ məs bi ˇsed tə ðəm.

P4 ə 'paund əv təˈmaːtuz əz bin ˋweid fə ju.

P4 'ðat ˈwəːd z bin 'spelt fə ju oːlˋredi.

P5 jɔː 'plan əd bin səˈdʒestid tə ðə ˋmanidʒə.

P5 ðə 'man əd oːlˈredi bin disˋkraibd tə mi.

P6 ðə 'peipəz | əv bin ˋpoustid tə ju bai ˌnau.

P6 ðə 'paːs| ˈmʌst əv bin ˈteikən tə jɔːr ˋaːnt.

P7 ðə 'difik|tiz ə biːiŋ iksˈpleind tə jɔː ˋsistə.

P7 sm̩ ˋgreips ə biːiŋ ˌgaðəd foː ju.

P8 wəz ðə 'suːp biːiŋ ˈmeid fə jɔː ˊmʌðə?

The treatment of the verb tu intrədjuːs when referring to two persons is similar to that described for the active voice in §377.

> jɔː 'kʌzn̩ ʃəd əv bin ˈintrəˈdjuːst tə di ˋʌðəz.
>
> ði 'ʌðəz ʃəd əv bin ˈintrəˈdjuːst tə jɔː ˋkʌzn̩.

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